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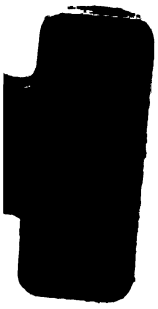

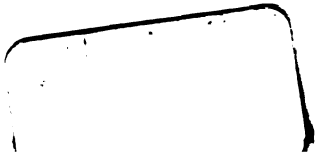

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JANUARY, 1845.

Art. I.—THE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF FRANCE IN 1844.*

A great and powerful nation like France, the soil of which extends over a vast territory, generally fertile, furnishes the means by which productive labor may be exerted in a thousand different forms. From agricultural toil, which is the basis and support of all the others, to research into the most difficult arts, men occupy their energies and intelligence in the creation of various useful products. The daily exchange of those products between the members of the great political family, combines an immense, active trade; and that portion which is not consumed in the interior, becomes the source of another commerce, less considerable, but of an importance which cannot be despised. By it are developed the diversified ties which bind us to other civilized nations; and by it we carry, even to the most savage people, the benefits of advanced arts and knowledge. By exterior commerce, by the navigation which attends it, by the wealth which it procures, and by the powerful means which it places at our disposal, as a political state, we uphold the work that we have the right to claim.

The movement of external commerce consists in the exchange of those products which superabound among ourselves, after our own consumption is satisfied, for other products that we need. That movement has various phases, some of which we shall now indicate. Thus, it is of importance for the country which sells to a stranger an article that having had multifarious workmanship, has acquired a high price, that the worth should duly be appreciated, and that the products in return should be of superior value. Moreover, it is advantageous to bring out products which are adopted to the most numerous foreign consumers; although the article may be left in a state of relative mediocrity, or devoid of the perfection of which it is capable. Hence, the highest price must be obtained from the

* This highly interesting paper originally appeared in "*La Revu Des Deux Mondes*," of September, 1844, published at Paris. The present literal translation is from a copy of it transmitted to us by M. D. L. Rodet, the author.

stranger for the articles which may have cost but a moderate portion of capital and of effort.

The precious metals serve to measure and to enumerate value; wherefore a country must possess a sufficiency of them to facilitate every transaction in which necessity or caprice demands the actual use of them. When that ample supply exists, credit is placed as a substitute for the metal, and performs its office. This state is favorable to mercantile affairs, the transactions of which proceed without becoming onerous. Nevertheless, if the precious metals accumulate too much, the eqilibrium in the value of commercial articles is deranged, and a painful disturbance ensues, until the use or the exportation of the metals, as merchandise, has repaired the defect. On the contrary, if the precious metals are not sufficiently abundant, everything which tends to regain them is advantageous to the country.

At the end of the last century, the European governments, and above all, that of France, attaching an exaggerated importance to the precious metals, were busily occupied in discovering the *balance of commerce*. Some, even yet, are thus engaged. By minute and lengthened estimates, according to the commercial prices-current of all the merchandise, the entry or export of which has been verified, they would judge by the difference, what is the overplus, or *balance*, supplied on either side by the precious metals. But the *elements* of that work were so incomplete and defective, and so many accessory circumstances were omitted, that a real induction could not be made from it. Not that a balance of commerce does not exist, but it can be more felt than exactly estimated. To obtain it, there must be a company of explorers so large that their joint labor cannot be secured, and numberless modifications would intervene to alter the tables of figures which they compiled, however great might be their exactness

Thus, a special commerce between two people might be engaged in, solely for the account of one party, who alone might receive the advantage, or sustain the loss. Then, follow the transport, freight, insurance, duties of export and import, everything which forms a large part of the value of merchandise, and which may be acquired by either of the commercial people. In fine, the banking trade, and the direct or indirect exchanges, public loans, and industrial skill, all at every movement, may change the results in reference to the exterior balance.

The government of a country exercises a vast influence over the results of labor and the exchanges that it makes. Without, by the duties, prohibitions, premiums, maritime laws, and commercial treaties. In the interior, by the imposts of every kind which it enacts, by the means of communication, and the monopolies and favors which are granted. The object is always to develope, and to educe labor; but are the means always adequate and felicitous? This is the topic which we now shall examine.

France has recently witnessed the exhibition of the principal products of our national industry. Strangers from all countries attended to participate in that show, and to join their acclamations with those of our fellow-citizens. The eager crowds daily manifested their liveliest admiration. The finest season of the year, an almost constantly favorable atmosphere, the festival in the midst of the operations, the brilliancy and the selection of the objects displayed, all concurred to charm and entice the most wayward minds. Now, that excitement has ceased, that the

amassed splendor and wealth are dispersed, the fascination gives place for reflection; and the mind is more free to yield itself to consideration upon the real or imaginary advantages which the repetition of industrial shows may have upon the country and the exhibitors.

Ten years ago, after the exhibition "FAIR," in 1834, we endeavored to estimate the industrial movement of France.* The *fetes* of July then were the occasion of the display, and the pretext upon which the object of internal policy was feigned. Regarding that which passed around us, we could not avoid a hasty inspection of the tendencies of the country in the midst of the last vague agitations of the revolution, from which so short a space had separated us. Men and things were judged, as we then beheld them, and with so rigorous an impartiality, that, after a long period, we find not any change in our opinions. We examine the causes that educed our first expositions, and which unexpectedly re-awakened them after an interruption of ten years. Then, in the purpose of more immediate utility, we endeavored to compare the proportion which our national industry possesses in distant markets, with that which the industry of our rivals has attained, and we often deplore the infirmity of our means. Have we now arrived at the station where we may conquer the post to which we should aspire? Is our industry so unfolded to the world, as entered upon that solid and firm course which guarantees success? We fear that it is otherwise. We do not dispute the merit to which such brilliant rewards have been distributed. Upright judges, and honored for their intelligence, leave not room for doubt with any person. That which we are solicitous to investigate is this, the causes which retard us, and the future, which the direction impressed upon our labor reserves for us.

We may apply the name industry† to all the labor produced by the spirit of enterprise and study. Industry, on one side, touches agriculture, which is its first branch. On the other, it terminates in the fine arts, which it powerfully aids; and which, by guiding and illuminating agricultural pursuits, rewards them. The exhibition of the Elysian fields has thus circumscribed in those limits all which it was possible to transport and affix within them. Yet, it was necessary to restrict the choice upon that which was an invention or a manufacture; but, consequently, to give preference to that which required a concourse of men combining mutual aid. Such did the exhibition present, necessarily incomplete, but great, glittering, brilliant, and attracting towards it even those who doubted its utility.

Nothing is more disputable than the serious and real advantages of that exhibition. It is true, it procures a lively satisfaction to the ministers and grandees who had the direction of it, and its attendant honors. Their importance momentarily was increased; and how many occasions did it afford to create for themselves friends! For the prince, his family, and his suite, it was a season of rejoicing, to become as if associated without embarrassment with all the mysteries and operations of the arts, which every one was so eager to explain, and which were the subjects of so many amiable and gracious words addressed to the exhibitors; words, the effect of which will never be lost, and the remembrance of which will be

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* *Revue des deux Mondes*, of September 15, 1834.

† "Industria est alacritas et studium in labore suscipiendo, urgendo, et preferendo."—*Cicero Ernesti.*

preciously retained in the cantons of France, whither they are carried! Then come the eager citizens around that which is spectacle and show, grouped together before the same objects which attracted not their regard in the shops of our walks and streets; and then the examiners, of whom some describe and others inspect the wonders shown.

Like a European fair, or an immense bazaar, the exhibition may subserve some kinds of articles, call to them attention when they have been neglected, and more easily acquire some consumers of them. Above all, it is useful to new manufacturers, by announcing their names; and the same cause retains the old manufacturers, who dare not to desert the field in which their rivals appear. But for all, how much time is wasted, and business neglected, and expense lost! The justice of the umpires, and the good will of authority truly grant medals and an honorable mention, which recommends the article to the public; but since nearly all are distinguished, and the careless world make no inquiry concerning the different grades, it follows that no one attains to any peculiar distinction. If any one receives a reward of the highest order, it is seldom that that person had not previously attained a rank sufficient to fix the regard of those in power. The condition of a useful manufacturer, therefore, appears to us not to depend in any degree upon the support of the exhibition; and if his material is formed with ability, in numberless cases the great day would be fatal to it.

We are not alone in the opinion that we now express; either the article sent, although of good quality, indicates no marked progress, and then it adds nothing to the reputation which the producer already enjoys, or the fabric is distinguished by some novel qualities. What follows? Perhaps the public will duly appreciate it; but the rivals of the producer, more competent and interested than the community, through envy, hasten to make known by what particular process the apparent perfection has been obtained. This lesson, thus given, profits them; and without any experience, or the expense of experiments, they at once find themselves on a level with those who preceded them. Then succeed the investigations of the umpires, whose research is pursued into the most minute details, so that they must know every thing, accurately to value it. At last, and not the least dangerous, is the exploration of the stranger, who attends, that he may learn by the comparison of so many objects collected together, and may carry away the result of our discoveries and labor.

Such is the perplexity of the French manufacturer. On one side are the praise and reward which attend him, vanity more or less satisfied, and the uncertain hope of new openings; and on the other, the expense, the forsaking of his business, and the almost certain communication to his rivals, of his own peculiar means for success. Can we then be surprised at the repugnance which so many enlightened manufacturers express at those exhibitions? For example, we need not marvel that the manufacturers of Lyons and Roubaix, sent only stuffs already before the public, worn out, so to speak, according to the report of *taste*. Would not their ruin follow the divulging of their actual products designed for the coming season? The industrious man who has invented a pleasing and attractive object for a purchaser, should be in possession of a temporary monopoly, during which the fashion will indemnify him for his labors, and which ceases as soon as the crowd of imitators divides with him the remuneration.

Those exhibitions might have been useful at the end of our first revolution, when it was desirable to encourage the country, and to exemplify that all the spirit of industry had not perished in the commotion. They may promote the views of the imperial chief, since he is permitted to discuss the merit of them. We believe that an exhibition, where, even at great expense, the products of foreign industry might be collected, if it less flattered our national self-love, would be an exhaustless source of emulation and instruction. In such a display, the attention would be only devoted to foreign industry and its products, with the research into its developments. We sometimes wish that the most advanced country, Britain, would determine to hold an assemblage like that which has just been dissolved in France; but we suppose that the Anglican manufactures would not comply with the invitation. Each of them is willing to study his competitor, as they have done among us; but neither of them is willing to become the subject of examination.

A long peace, an increasing population, and a more rational application of human power to the agricultural and industrial arts, have universally augmented the mass of products destined to supply our national wants. Wealth is represented under every form of exchange; and credit consequently developing itself, daily educes new efforts. Enterprise has calculated the advantages which may be realized by labor in common, and under the direction of a single will. Whenever the artisan is not under the obligation of direct affinity with the consumer, he must withdraw, and give place to the manufacturer. There is scarcely any need of anticipation, unless for some special objects. Every where, and always ready, are found the articles that we need. The enlargement of manufactures diminishes the price of return; and the sudden desire promptly gratified, augments consumption, which often would not have occurred, if the wish had required discussion, with the uncertainty of being satisfied. Such is the course of all people, and important consequences flow from it.

Whatever may be the inventive and applied genius of its inhabitants, France has arrived to the perfect industry which her rivals have attained, only in a few, and those not the most essential objects. The things in which she excels all others, are those which depend upon that almost undefinable sentiment called taste; and those which can be aided by science, and in which her eminent men can guide. This department assuredly is beautiful; nevertheless, it is not that which in our relations with foreign nations can place on our side the balance of public wealth. The useful arts which are applied to the products necessary for all people, and among the most numerous classes of the various nations, are just those in which we remain inferior.

Doubtless we cannot consider it grievous that in France, generally, the price of workmanship in our fabrics is amply sufficient, so that a relative competency in agreement with our climate and the wants of life, is the lot of the laboring classes. Still it would be preferable, if the price of the product was higher, whatever disadvantage might result from it, that we might not behold in our country that settled wretchedness and debasement of our operations, which we witness in the neighboring countries. But workmanship is not the only element of production. The necessary machinery and implements, the motive-agents, which already demand the

employment of previous tool-machines, all are too costly in France; and our progress is far from being equal to our wants.

The recent exhibition disclosed to us immense progress in the fabrication of the tool-machines which are destined for the production of materials more immediately used in workmanship. Why have those amendments been so slow? Why are they not more general and important? These are grave questions. During a long time, manufactures were not established, because there were no mechanicians to organize them at a moderate price. On the other part, large capitals must be buried in the mere creation of mechanical factories, of which light and uncertain demands would not incite the establishment. What a variety of models, materials, and operations, must be collected, before they can execute the smallest order! To those difficulties are joined the rarity of the secondary metals, which nature so sparingly has bestowed; the comparative high price of castings and iron, with the deficiency and want of the means of communication for the transport of fuel; all which difficulties must be surmounted; and, now that this condition is amended, we cannot withhold our admiration from the courageous individuals who have also aided other branches of industry. Let us hope that the movement at length confirmed, we may extend our manufactures, since we possess mechanicians answerable to our wants, and that they will have certain employ by the development of the spirit of industry.

Iron and fuel are the primary elements of all industry. That we may compete with the foreigners, we must be abundant and cheap; and to this result the arts, not the intention of government, always have been unfavorable. It is true, French productions have been protected by a high tariff against foreign importations, and a movement of emulation and rivalry has ensued, which has induced the proprietors of stores, furnaces, and forges, to study all possible economy, and the melioration of the processes. The working of iron has made the greatest progress, but it has often not succeeded in rewarding the efforts. The protection with which it has been attended, has profited beyond measure and proportion the proprietor of forests, who, without either risk or labor, has obtained the most certain advantage.

In 1819, there were consumed in France—

Castings by wood coal,.....tons	110,500	Iron, by wood coal,.....tons	73,200
" coke,.....	2,000	Iron, by pit coal, both exclusively and partially,.....	1,000
Total tons consumed,.....	112,500	Total tons,.....	74,200

In 1842, the amount was,

Castings by wood coal,.....	297,174	Iron, by wood coal,.....tons	109,795
" coke,.....	102,282	" pit coal,.....	175,029
Total tons,.....	399,456	Total tons,.....	284,824

Until 1828, for the making of castings, and until 1833 for that of iron, the increase of mineral fuel was very slow. In 1829, the law of indemnity having changed considerable capital among the class of the great proprietors, the forests, sought out for their situation, acquired a high relative value, and the state of the woods fit for cultivation have been affected by it. Nature has very liberally diffused iron on the surface of the French soil; but certain situations, very important by the mass and the

good quality of the iron ore, are found far from the coal mines; and only near forests which ever have been devoted to the use of the foundaries. There the masters of furnaces and forges have been subject to the proprietors of the woods, while the imperfection, or the want of ways of communication with coal mines, still interdicts every appeal to any change of method. Thus it has been ascertained that from 1829 to 1840, the price of wood coal, the use of which for inns is indispensable, has doubled in French Compte, in the Vorges, and the Haute Marne, all districts rich in forests. The competition of consumers has contributed to it; but the measures of the ministers of finance which has followed, have been the true source of the evil. The state, by succession the heir of the rights by French conquest of the greater part of the forests of ancient Gaul, has acted in the sale of them like an economical citizen, who has no other solicitude than to raise the price of the article which he alone can offer, to purchasing competitors. In England, at the same time, coal and minerals, distributed widely by the rivalry of sellers, have permitted enterprising men to develope industry in an immense degree; and it is the flame of the forges and foundaries in that island of fogs, through which she has acquired the sovereign power that rules the half of our globe.

The principal and accessory elaborations of iron and copper, and the turning of those substances into steel, plates and rods, and iron wares, increase the use of fuel. By combining those divers works for the using up of the primitive materials, the administration of the mines discovers that there were consumed in 1842, 45,500,000 francs, paid for wood and wood-coal; and 15,000,000 francs, for pit-coal and coke; for wood, one-fifth more than ten years previous; and for mineral fuel, an increase of two-fifths.

The workmanship of iron is the question involving the wealth and power of France. Iron must be abundant and cheap, if our industry would compete with that of foreigners—and agriculture also must have better instruments, and concur on its part to render life easier to the laboring classes. After the state, as possessors of the forests, we find the civil list, the communes, and a small number of large proprietaries. Those last follow the impulse which is given to them from the higher authority, and sometimes excite it through their political influence. In itself it is a monopoly which is established and abuses its power, because the producer of iron cannot escape from it. It would be the wisdom of the government, by the reduction of the price for the cutting of wood, to make an abatement which shall render not futile for consumers and producers, the progress that the spirit of order and economy, aided by science during several years has made. Extreme care is taken that a useful effect shall not be lost in the series of operations in metals; and, doubtless, the last word has not been mentioned as the result of amendments; but it should not be solely for the benefit of the proprietor of the soil.

France daily makes great progress in the course of labor, and all the useful professions are respected and honored in proportion as idleness loses credit, but neither true agriculture, nor genuine industry can dwell in the simple administration of the proprietor of the land, or of capital, who confines himself to watch the farmer, or the manager of it. He does not work by himself. He profits solely by the rivalry of the workmen, and of the better understanding of the works, the consequence of which

is the obtaining of more important products. Farming everywhere has extended. The land, by each change, acquires a more considerable selling value; and that incessant reaction, to which an obstacle has not interposed during thirty years, operates so that each new proprietor complains of the small interest which the land returns, contends against everything which may reduce it, and upholds every measure which could augment it.

The tax of interest, rent, or usury of moveable capitals, has undergone serious modifications; and has been diminished with the competition of greater security, and more extended credit—but as this part of public confidence always remains accompanied by certain accidents, that tax is higher than that of the rent of land. Nevertheless, we perceive that in proportion as riches are formed and are accumulated in the same hand, the man who attains a fortune generally invests a part of his wealth in landed property. On the other side, the true agriculturist, the man who toils and digs, if he can realize any savings, hastens to exchange it for the price of land which suits his judgment. He also has little regard for the farm which he might possibly obtain. In his mind he confounds the rent with the remuneration for the work which he designs to apply to his new acquisition, and of which he forms but little estimate. He also finds his business advantageous, while the simple proprietary will seek every occasion to raise the tax of rent, concerning which he negotiates, and strives to obtain the greater portion by the augmentation of the products, both in value and in quantity.

The state, the communes, and the high proprietorship, by different proceedings, have been the true authors of the relatively high price of iron, and in opposing them with all the resources of activity and science, the producers of iron have meliorated their difficult situation, by sometimes yielding in the conflict. The state maintains protection against foreign iron; but by the price of cutting wood, it adds every year something to the price of national iron. Every day, also, internal competition, necessity, and the fixed standard of protected rights, determine an abatement of the selling price to the detriment of the manufacturer.

The diminution in the price of iron which will instantly follow when the government shall consult the true interests of the country; and not only the want of its daily resources already has produced a part of the happy effects which might be expected. France is agitated by remarking the rapid strides which all nations are making in the pathway of industry and labor. Reflecting men are excited by the public impulse, and notwithstanding the ill success of some others, do not abandon the career. In that number, we place in the first rank the mechanicians, considering the embarrassments which encircle them. We know well that a public exhibition cannot easily occur in a neighboring country, for all that country is one simultaneous exhibition; and every county, even every village of England, contains its wonders of art, and of a mechanical production; but we already have, as the guaranty of capacity in our constructors of machines, the foreign demand which drew from France, in 1837, nearly 1,800,000 francs, in 1842, about 4,600,000 francs, and in 1843, nearly 5,400,000 francs. Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, Russia, Germany, almost all the neighboring countries, have united in this demand. Our exportations in other works, of which metals are the basis, in iron, castings, copper, &c., have been raised to 7,458,000 francs, in 1842; and to

8,725,000 francs, in 1843. Those sums are but small; but they are indications of the course upon which we are entering.

Having obtained possession of the machines for planing, turning, boring, drawing out, and cutting all kinds of mixed metals, iron and plates, we need not fear the want of producing tools. All the machines which were exhibited, were executed with a neatness and a precision which the most precious instruments destined for the mathematical sciences could claim; an indispensable condition now, as the principle of life and motion of these powerful forces is generally derived from steam, that great auxiliary of man; but at the same time a difficult power, breaking through every obstruction which would make it deviate from its course.

The exhibition offers not a sufficient space for steam machinery to be displayed in all its magnificence. They were admitted only as patterns, or as a specimen of various systems. That sufficed to demonstrate that we have nothing more to desire respecting the perfection of them.

A multitude of various inventions, the design of which is to aid or prepare for human operations, attracted the attention of all. Some are owing to our national genius, a greater number are of foreign origin, but happily imitated. We need not be surprised that we often borrow; because we are not impelled by the stimulus of demand, which urges to the search after all possible economy in the workmanship. We proceed slowly, above all with the additional uncertainty of diminishing the capital of industry, always so burdensome to create. It is easily seen, that if the causes which have retarded among us the development of industry in iron works, had not existed, we should have made all other progress in the advancement of the mechanical arts.

Modern nations, formed through migration, conquest, unions, and the mixtures which their history retraces, in the midst of their various elements, have, notwithstanding the presence of some of the most striking features of the principal races to which they belong—in spite of numberless individualities which separate them from the mass, the character of a people is quickly defined, and it is easy to generalize their defects and their qualities. In the pursuit of works of industry, we are prompt to undertake, but easily discouraged. Endowed with an inventive mind, we quickly abandon the discoveries that we make, to search after novelty, when the experience of our rivals has shown the useful, which may be drawn from it. Yet one thing is universally acknowledged, that to the practical arts, we join that previous quality, called taste, which is rather felt than explicable. In contriving, as well as in appropriating the inventions of others, the Frenchman seeks to give to the object that he produces, the just proportion in form, the felicitous harmony in the choice of colors, which procures to the observing mind the satisfaction, that in one aspect it shall be dull or rough, and in another that it shall offend by the contrary defect. If, sometimes, an excess of elegance tends to sordidness, if the enticement of strangeness verges towards fantastic forms, the national taste rectifies the errors of the workman, and French products soon assume the place which they should occupy. In this connection, the exhibitions of France are especially remarkable.

Taste in France is sustained by a natural disposition to the culture of the fine arts. In the metropolis and in the principal cities, the attention of the less wealthy classes with avidity turns to the new products which annually are invented. The people learn to inspect and judge, and, not-

withstanding the incessant renewal of the laboring men in the cities, by the uncultivated inhabitants of the country, the notice of the arts prepares its way among the most restricted understandings, and tends to render perfect the numerous articles of our industry.

The bronzed materials, for example, as an article of commerce, are not a contemptible object; and they constitute in value one half of our exportations in wrought metals. Works of design, sculptures, mixed metals, carving, gilding, and other necessaries, form a large portion of our workmanship. Our principal workmen are enabled to distribute, in every country, the admirable articles which are sent from their manufactories. French art receives the tribute of the superior and wealthy classes of all the world; and the portion without taste, of affectation, and of trifling invitations every year diminishes.

Our goldsmiths' work is equally above all rivalry. Sometimes obliged to yield to the odd and singular taste of foreigners, it nevertheless unfolds the modifications with which the French hand impresses it. The outlines are purified and become elegant, the brilliant carving gives life, and carries into the details the grace which makes both valued. True masterpieces in design, art, and the combination of metals, marked the exhibition, and justify the popularity which encircles our working artists. The spirit of emulation urged them to study antiquity, and the various caprices of the middle ages; to examine the Indian art; to unite the contrarieties of the different costly metals so as to form the brilliancy of the precious stones; and the success of their undertakings has strengthened the confidence which their talents previously inspired. A regular annual exportation of ten or twelve millions of goldsmiths' work, trinkets, jewelry, corals, and plated articles, shows the esteem which foreigners have for our works. The galvanic process of the gold and silver in metals, called out to a great extension, cannot fail to enlarge considerably the advantages which we already have obtained.

We receive from foreigners, by the declaration of the custom house, and independent of contraband, five or six millions of clocks and watches of every kind, and our exportations remain within two millions. By which we may judge how much less the French workmanship is, than our demands. We do not here judge of the honorable exceptions which might be mentioned; but French names enjoy so little favor, that the greater part of the exported articles bear a strange name. This circumstance, indeed, is more advantageous than loyal; for we have the recent fact of the captain of a French ship, who, exporting some watches to China, only asked of the furnisher, that the movements and hands should keep together until the arrival of the ship at Canton. The result is only one of the countless episodes of that seaman's unfortunate petty commerce, which so much has contributed to discredit French trade in distant ports.

The fabrication of precise instruments, mathematical, physical, and optical, above all, the maritime light-houses, which assure the navigator against the danger of coasts, have received merited eulogy. Science thus finds ample provision for all the auxiliaries which aid man in the works that he undertakes, to put aside the boundaries of our knowledge.

We are inferior to England in the ordinary cutlery for the use of all classes, for which goodness and solidity suffice, at a moderate cost. Our system of workmanship, by isolated labor, is less favorable to this branch, which slowly improves. Although we succeed better in fine cutlery, ex-

cept a too great fickleness in the search after elegance, our regular exportations are restricted to the annual value of 1,200,000 francs. That also is nearly the amount of our exportations of all kinds of arms, of which two-thirds are articles of fancy, and the other third in bows; and in them the exhibition scarcely unfolded any thing which is not called for by luxury or particular choice.

Cutlery and arms are among the number of important articles of exportation from England; nevertheless, the manufacturers of Birmingham and Sheffield, were eager to explore our products. They avowed, that during their visit, they had collected for the benefit of their establishments, useful and interesting observations, which no person could obtain by reiterated walks in the sale shops. They did full justice to French labor, but they could not adequately conceive the causes which oblige us to maintain our excessive prices for so many useful objects in all the details of life; and for the employments in which iron is gradually becoming a substitute for other materials, such as bedsteads of iron.

The workmanship of iron, as we have seen within the last quarter of a century, has been quadrupled in France. It is now beginning to be more commensurate with our wants, but the price is too high. The appropriation of iron to the various operations, is without any possible limits; so, in proportion as we make progress, we shall behold other backward branches of industry developed, such as cutlery, arms, nails, iron ware, both fine and common, in all which foreigners now surpass us.

Besides the important articles just mentioned, others of great interest exist, which affect the well being that men desire in their domicils. In the first place is the workmanship of furniture, and instruments of music, which we cannot but consider in their commercial reference, and in which the manifestation of French taste is combined with their studious researches.

Civilized nations attach importance to that which makes the interior ornament and comfort of their dwellings. The climate which confines us during so many hours, renders necessary to us a multitude of conveniences, which the inhabitants of warmer countries cannot appreciate. Not only must our furniture be commodious, but the form and aspect of them must be agreeable; and in our attempts to secure those ends, we are attracted by the fickle love of change. Fashion, which displaced the false Roman design, by that of the middle age and of renovation, produced a great variety in forms of furniture. It invited the combination of sculptare in wood, metalic carving, gilding, with the application of stuffs and precious metals. The burden and the expense of transport will always hinder the foreigner from sending to France for anything but high-priced articles; but in this direction, we guard our advantages; and the exportations, in 1843, amounted to 3,000,000 francs, for furniture, and 1,200,000 francs for musical instruments.

The arts of saddlery and coach-making were scarcely presented at the exhibition, and yet they are numbered among those which have made most progress. With the abatement of the price of iron and steel, and a better mechanical skill, all the parts of this important traffic are amended, and foreigners begin to appreciate the labor of our workmen; so that the exportation of those materials, for 1843, amounted to 1,300,000, or 1,400,000 francs.

The progress of glass works, and those of earthen-ware, is obvious. Our looking-glasses are unequalled. After long hesitation, our crystals

begin to rival those of Bohemia, Venice and England; and it would be censurable, not to mention the disks of flint-glass, of large dimensions, which promise new progress in astronomy. Those articles were furnished for exportation, in 1843, to the amount of 3,200,000 francs, and it is probable that the trade will increase.

The exportation of porcelain, in 1843, was valued at more than 2,000,000 francs for the ordinary kind, and at 7,000,000 francs for the fine articles. In all, 9,000,000 francs, which amount is an advance upon 1841 and 1842.

Among the wealthier class, the use of earthen ware, which combines a moderate price with great neatness, susceptible of becoming an object of luxury through the application of gilding, and of the most precious painting and most tasteful ornaments, daily is enlarging. From the imitation of China ware, we have passed down to pipe clay; and now porcelain has penetrated into the village inn. We continue to manufacture good and beautiful porcelain, which is one of the arts that is increasingly developed. Sometimes, however, by seeking originality in novel forms, they are awkward and inconvenient. Such appears to us to be the poor idea of imitating Chinese wares. The Chinese type is sought only because it indicates a comparative rareness in the possessor, the effect of distance and difficulty; for, as soon as it becomes common, the fashion will be withdrawn, and the expense of the eccentric undertaking will be risked. We should give a high preference to the efforts of laborious workmen who would establish, in a more common earthen-ware destined for the poor classes, a low price, connected with solidity and suitability for ordinary use; being of good taste, without the grotesque. In this we offend; and the majority of our population are reduced to coarse earthen utensils, more numerous samples of which we regret that we did not see at the exhibition; at least enough of them by which the real condition, in the various departments of France, of one of the most useful arts might be judged. A special exhibition, which would combine the patterns of every article that is manufactured in France, might contribute to enlighten the various manufacturers upon the resources which are within their reach. The effects of rivalry would be less dreaded.

All the professions bound to be represented at this great assemblage of industry, many were not able to approach it, unless in alleging or producing a method of amendment, or of innovation on the ordinary practice. This was principally discovered in the secondary arts appertaining to the construction of edifices. The fabrication of tiles, bricks, the apparatus for heat, flouring, plaster, imitations of marble, the use of wood in all forms, of metals and marble, would demand volumes to explain them; but scarcely either of those objects is susceptible of a moveable commerce. The almost exclusive use of them in the locality where they are produced, hinders us from noticing them; although each of them is applied to satisfy a want, or a fancy, and contributes to mark our era of civilization. It is otherwise when the exterior commerce seizes upon it; and in the impossibility of numbering in detail all the articles which passed under our eyes, we may assert that the French products exported in 1843, were,

Of mercer's wares,	francs	18,500,000
Toys,		1,200,000
Umbrellas,		1,200,000
Fashionable dress,		5,100,000
Various articles of Parisian elegant industry, fitted to attract purchasers,		5,600,000

This is doubtless a small sum, but the value is precious, because it is almost entirely the proceeds of industry and of workmanship.

The chemical arts also concurred to furnish, for the exhibition, a great variety of articles worthy of estimation, which also equally contribute to our external commerce. Perfumery, which belongs to them, is a branch sufficiently important to supply annually eight millions of products for exportation.

The divers preparations to which hides and skins are subjected, and which fit them for domestic uses, have also followed the course of improvement. Thus the exportations exceed eight millions for prepared skins, and more than twenty-one millions for those which have been wrought. Gloves alone, in this last sum, amount to eight millions.

The trade in hats appears to be stationary, both for internal traffic, and for exportation, for within three years it has not exceeded the amount of two millions.

All the arts are united, and mutually aid each other. Less than four centuries sufficed for typography to renew the face of the world. Who can doubt that to this wondrous invention, we owe all the changes effected by the diffusion of knowledge, and the amplitude of thought? Paper, that powerful auxiliary, is not deficient, and forms part of a traffic which constantly is enlarging. The exportation of white paper, for packing, or colored, has more than doubled within ten years, and now amounts to nearly eight millions. The mechanical operations for it have produced an enormous abatement in the price, which has unfolded an increased consumption. At the late exhibition, a paper mill, destined for Belgium, was observed, which would compete, for precision, with the best established machines. The arts which belong to the use of paper are sustained in their superiority. Typography, lithography, engraving, cards, and engraved music, add largely to our external commerce, not less in 1843, than 9,400,000 francs, for painted paper. This last article, always directed by French taste, is unrivalled.

We have summarily estimated our foreign commerce in some of the principal articles of sale. This review unfolds the weakness of our resources, and the enormous distance between us and our rivals. Britain alone, after having retained that which is necessary for her own immense consumption, annually sends abroad as much iron as France produces. From which we may judge of her superiority in other articles.

We have yet to examine other industrial pursuits, containing equally important and useful instruction of this kind. We shall continue to cite, for this purpose, the documents to which our custom-house administration gives publicity. Guided by them, we can follow, analyze, and comprehend the least movements of trade. Imports, exports, transit, storage, navigation, and the coasting traffic, all are collected, and presented in a clear, simple, and methodical order. We would, however, remark, that constrained to use only the official calculations which were adopted in 1825, the administration give in their tables an exaggerated valuation to various merchandise. Thus, as to imports, colonial provisions, dye-stuffs, cottons, &c., and in exports, the cotton cloth, linen, and almost all our fabrics, are entered on the balance for sums which exceed one-third or one-half of the real value. There exists not any declared or certified valuation which is near the truth.

Without stopping for this inconvenience, which protracted examination

would but partially remove, we may remark, that our legislation grants much facility to commerce in transit and re-exportation. The merchandise that we reject from our own consumption, like colonial provisions and raw materials, are admitted to remain in our storehouses, and to circulate through our territory, passing by the frontiers, both of land and sea, from one nation to another. The value of this movement through France, between foreigners, almost without our participation, exclusive of the benefit of moderate charges, is comprised in the term, general commerce. The administration, under the title, special commerce, notices that which concerns the French trade only; that is, the importation of articles, the duties of which are released for national consumption, and the export of the products from our own soil and industry. The difference between the special and general commerce, gives exactly the value of foreign exchanges, transacted under our control.

In 1843, the general commerce, by importation, amounted to.....francs	1,121,400,000
Special commerce,.....	845,600,000
Leaving, for the foreign traffic,.....	275,800,000
as the value of merchandise in transit, re-exported or left in the storehouses.	
The general commerce, for exportation, extended to.....francs	992,000,000
Special commerce,.....	687,300,000
Leaving, for the foreign traffic,.....	304,700,000
as the value of merchandise re-exported, in the store-houses, or in transit.	

Our territory is peculiarly situated for communication between the United States, ancient Spanish America, Brazil, the Antilles, England, and a part of Spain on one side, with the Sardinian states, the kingdom of Lombardy, Switzerland, and central Germany, part of the Zoll Verein, and Belgium on the other side. England no longer takes the way of the continent for their distant commerce—but Holland, by the Rhine and the Meuse, Bremen and Hamburg upon the North Sea, Trieste in the Adriatic, Genoa and Leghorn in the Mediterranean—all offer the choice of divers routes, besides those of France, for the industry of internal Europe. Therefore we may conclude that the facts which we now shall examine, have more importance than the tables which we dismiss.

In comparing among themselves the products of our various manufactories, we can easily appreciate their relative quality and merit; but our judgment will not be adequate, until it is confirmed by that of the nations with whom we have commercial relations. Having prohibited similar articles, we have not before us all the principles of desirable comparison, only by the state of our exterior commerce, can we duly be enlightened. Foreigners show us, by the extensive or limited use of our merchandise, whether, in their judgment, we are in an advantageous course. Similar instruction is derived by us when the rivalry of another nation interferes with the marts of which we were in sole possession. We should regard the opinion of the foreign consumer, who is free to choose among all the supplies, because in the interior we are undisputed masters of the market. In this point of view, we shall more particularly examine the situation of the four great branches of industry which formed the most brilliant part of our recent exhibition. The deposits of workmanship in silk, wool, flax, hemp, and cotton, combine the final result of the greater part of the arts that we have reviewed. Iron, tool-machines, steam, and other moving powers, complicated mechanism, dying, gums, and the chemical arts,

all meet in spinning and weaving. Our examination, therefore, will be more minute, and we shall use some tables, because without them, our views would want support, and our reasoning would be without force, as depending upon mere assertions.

Any country assuredly cannot contest with France, our best characterized superiority in peculiar and remarkable woven goods. Nothing of that kind rivals the French manufactures. Respecting silk, we offer velvets, satins, and the richest and most perfect stuffs; in wool, we have fine cloths, merinos, and challies; in linen, cambric and lawns; and in cotton, our printed cloths. But have we attained the goal, and does this excellence certify the advantage over all our competitors? Doubtless not. We have passed the mark, but we must not stop there; and although we supply the demands of wealth and luxury, we must struggle, if we would work for more numerous purchasers, who take into consideration both the cost and the use.

Independent of the general causes which we have indicated as having hitherto more particularly paralyzed the efforts of our industry, we may specify the duties imposed upon the original articles, the agency of which is felt, notwithstanding the premium for export. As the workman knows not always beforehand that he is laboring for exportation, all the chances should be attained by him; and since the absolute prohibitions render us unable to know the competitorships with which we have to contend, we remain stationary when we should advance.

Spinning and weaving are the most ancient arts in the world. The wool of animals, and afterwards silk, flax, and cotton, highly excited human industry, long ere the various species of cloths which mark our epoch were produced. Applied to the embellishment of our dwellings, and to our need of garments, the cloths which the masses of the population use, are the most certain index of their comfort or wretchedness. Since a power which the whole world recognizes, the fashion, exercises a mighty sway both in the choice of stuffs, and in the forms which they assume; that apparently futile motive often creates or dilapidates wealth in spite of reason.

Almost all men are susceptible of lively impressions by the sight of a new stuff, brilliant in color, gloomy or fantastic, or by the cut of a garment unexpectedly offered to their notice. If to the feeling of a certain strangeness, which attracts attention, is joined an appreciation of harmony, elegance, or distinction, in the person whom we see arrayed in a fashion to which we are not habituated, the fashion is created. That person becomes the type which is eagerly imitated, without reflecting that the acknowledged gracefulness may be peculiar to himself, and yet a whole population soon adopts the stuff, or the new fashion. The continuance of the mode is uncertain. It is at first the portion of a small number, then it passes around the whole neighborhood, struggling against inconvenience and a bad taste. From the elevated classes among whom it originated, it descends through society, expelling ancient habits, and making them disappear, until it yields to a novel mode, which a new hazard brings forth, and which runs through the same circle. The duration of a fashion is uncertain. Daughter of a caprice, caprice destroys it; and, nevertheless, this fugitive power, during its ephemeral reign, has distributed riches, animated the people, and produced economical effects of the highest importance.

The most dignified authority is powerless against fashion. It follows favor, but resists constraint. For example, in France, it is a prescription not to comply with an invitation from the prince, unless clothed in a particular dress, called the costume of the court, or the court dress. The assemblies where that dress is the etiquette, offer the most singular admixture of garments, of different modes, borrowed from divers epochs, ornaments in bad taste, and capricious embroidery. The artist, the scholar, the burgess, who are not distinguished by a particular habit, or a species of uniform like public functionaries, understand that in departing from the levee to which they were invited, the fashion of the day cannot follow them into the society of their equals, that the fashion will not ratify the dress in pretence, and they hasten to cast it off, with its accompanying uneasiness. The court dress, when it was that which the saloons of titled men alone admitted, becoming a common mode, was subject to the common law, and to the sway of taste and the fashion. It is now only the index of a fleeting obligation, for the country are too conscious of men's worth, that merely exterior embroidery shall excite their respect for him who wears it.

Respecting the use of the most important woven goods, such as cloths, and silk stuffs combined, to which persons are attached, because of the change of color or of use, the mode annually tends to novelty in silks and stuffs, both mixed and printed. By this, above all, our exhibitions of industry constantly assume a new aspect, which is reflected among the surrounding multitude, seduced and charmed by the choice of so many objects designed to please them.

Fashion indistinctly arises in all civilized countries. In passing from one people to another, it receives a particular impression, which, however, leaves the trace of its origin. In Asia, in Egypt, in ancient Thrace, it has conquered the repulsion of Islamism for French customs; and in the exterior, it forms every nation into one family. In more distant periods, barbarous people were clothed after their own manner, and our exchanges with them were based upon other tastes than our own.

We proceed to compare our real commerce with that of the foreigners among us. If, in the official documents of our export trade, we attend to the articles woven, we ascertain that in 1843, there passed out of France,

	Of French workmanship. *Francs.*	Of foreign w'rkm'ship. *Francs.*
Of silk,.....	129,579,499	33,469,810
" wool,.....	79,576,567	29,967,605
" flax and hemp,.....	9,663,571	12,062,150
" linen, cambrics, and lawns,.....	8,252,320	328,840
" cotton,.....	82,070,943	39,186,182
" divers materials,.....	487,216	1,175,288
" divers threads,.....	3,019,091	2,212,294
Total,.....	312,649,187	109,402,089

The cloths exported from France, having a total value of 422,000,000 francs, represent nearly one-half of our entire commerce. To have the tax of the real trade in cloths, we must deduct 109,000,000 francs, or one-fourth which belongs to foreign fabrics. Moreover, our special commerce includes the consumption of our colonies, who have not the means to provide for themselves otherwise, and who purchase our native or na-

tionalized linen cloths, calicoes, and cotton goods. In our exclusion of foreign markets, the products which are defective are those which our manufacturers neglect, through indolence or inattention, attracted by the applause of public exhibitions, so favorable to articles of luxury and taste, and so careless to display that which belongs to the mass of consumers. One glance cast over the particular results of each industrial trade, justifies this declaration.

Silk goods always have been considered a branch of business in which every person yields us the palm. We have long possessed the production of a considerable part of the raw material which we use. The cultivation of silk worms yearly increases, by means of powerful emulation, the encouragement given to the culture of silk, and the universally acknowledged skill of our silk dresses. Silk appeared at the exhibition, from its state in cocoons, to its most advanced preparation by the dyer, for the manufacturer. It has justified the efforts of agriculture, and of silk-worm breeding, as well as of the mill and dying.

Calculations, carefully made, including only a few years, certify that eight or nine millions of kilogrammes of silk, in every kind, were used in European manufactures, throughout Europe, the Levant, and Eastern Asia. Italy alone supplied nearly one-half, and France furnished eight or nine hundred thousand kilogrammes. Those silks were dispersed among all the manufacturing people, in various proportions. France, on her part, received as much of raw, as of mill, or floss silk.

In 1841,.....	1,418,000 killogrammes, valued at.....	72,000,000	francs.
1842,.....	954,000 " "	43,000,000	"
1843,.....	1,318,000 " "	50,000,000	"

On the average, one million two hundred and thirty thousand kilogrammes, at the value of fifty-five millions; and the actual product must be nearly a similar amount.

During the same periods, we exported, in silks of the same kind, of our own growth, or nationalized, in dyed silks—

In 1841,.....	3,562,000	francs.
1842,.....	5,679,000	"
1843,.....	7,915,000	"

Our territory also permitted, for transit—

In 1841,.....	47,000,000	francs.
1842,.....	51,000,000	"
1843,.....	51,000,000	"

That transit is equivalent to an equal sum of our own importation; and the silks of Lombardy, Piedmont, and the oriental countries, have only traversed our soil for the destination of the rival manufactures of England, Germany, and Switzerland.

If, as our efforts testify, we permit foreign silk to pass by us, our rivals will not longer find us in competition with them, in the Italian markets. It is probable that they will profit by it to obtain an abatement of price, and in this manner will combine against us many advantages. This is not an imaginary fear. Thus sustained, and with a system of workmanship less costly than ours, the countries which we have mentioned have overtaken and outstripped us. In the articles of silk, the general exportations of 1843 comprise—

	French manufactures. *Francs.*	From foreigners. *Francs.*
Printed handkerchiefs,.....	1,168,320	68,880,440
Smooth silk stuffs,.....	48,814,320	12,039,480
Ribbons,.....	23,817,240	11,762,760

If an immense superiority remains with us still, in articles of taste, that which serves for general consumption cannot be disputed with us in our own domain.

Our situation for the working of wool, is still more disadvantageous; for a prior impediment is found in the demands of the proprietors of the soil. Already they have raised the price of iron, in doubling the cost of wood: or at least they have hindered it from descending to a fair price. Now they maintain the price of grossly imposing a duty of 20 per cent on wool, which they say is insufficient. To raise, without the combination of any special work, the selling value of land, then the price of rent, and thence to claim an augmented protection for products, are as baneful to all industry, as if a financial measure was adopted to raise a tax upon the interest of capital, and to stop credit. The manufacture of wool, on this occasion, has to contend against a serious difficulty, which the bounty for the export of stuffs is far from remedying; for an artificial rise of French wool results from it. Besides, the workman, on that occasion, has helped the proprietary, fearing that the withdrawment of the duty may involve the ceasing of the prohibition. The development of an industrious pursuit, which long was the glory of France, has been sacrificed to the stagnation which the actual system produces.

Our importations of foreign wool are limited, in ordinary cases, to twenty millions of kilogrammes; the average of which is forty millions of francs. In the division of exported products, we find that the woollen articles, in 1843, were thus classed:—

	French workmanship. *Francs.*	Foreign manuf. *Francs.*
Carpets,.....	391,000	835,000
Cloths,.....	19,280,000	8,420,000
Cassimeres and merinoes,.....	5,693,000	4,124,000
Various stuffs,.....	17,006,000	4,225,000
Hosiery,.....	2,069,000	314,000
Mixed stuffs,.....	6,223,000	2,135,000
Challies,.....	26,964,000	790,000

By this small number of articles, we perceive that our fabrics continue to rival by their excellence; but for the middling qualities, the demands of distant people, and the sales which gave our ancestors the exclusive possession of the marts in the Levant, of those the most important, have been forgotten.

Is the want of wool suitable for moderate-priced goods, or is the wrong direction of our articles, to be assigned as the cause of our want of progress in the carpet business, since 1834? The most boasted of those carpet stuffs which appeared at the exhibition, were but middling in quality, and of bad taste in design. We seek show, and not use; and we recall the words ratified by the inquiry of 1834. The continuance of the prohibition of Turkey carpets was claimed; and it was remarked, "They are sought because they are good, warm, and cheap." Alas! we did not perceive any carpets of that character, at the exhibition of 1844.

In the production of challies, France has not a rival. They are a cloth of which delicate taste alone can perpetuate the fashion, in skilfully varying it. Our exports of challies, in 1841, amounted to eight millions; in 1842, to ten millions; and they now exceed that of cloths; which, for three years, has been stationary, if not retrograding.

The manufacture of flax and hemp, which is so entwined with all our domestic use, has been naturalized in France with great difficulty, since it has passed generally out of the domestic hands, to be classed with manufactures. The housewife's spinning-wheel, and the modest loom of the husbandman, we aver, are now almost devoted to absolute inaction. The progress of the arts has affected the last refuge of poverty; and France, to which is due the discovery of machine-spinning, has not yet profited by it sufficiently to do without her competitors. Long did the fertile soil of Belgium furnish us with the lace that we needed, and supplied a part of our wants;—now, we often procure from the foreigners the thread for which we supplied the raw material. Our custom-house laws are powerless to effect the remedy. France produced, of flax and hemp thread—

In 1841,.....	9,915,000 kilogrammes, valued at.....	40,000,000	francs.
1842,.....	11,314,000 " "	45,200,000	"
1843,.....	7,629,000 " "	30,500,000	"

The change of legislation, in 1842, briefly suspended the imports; but already the first months of 1844, compared with those of the last year, manifest a great progression. The raising of the duties did not suffice to guarantee our spinning factories, and it is only in themselves that we must seek the means to repel foreign products. The high protective duties only develop the fraud.

In cloths of flax and hemp, the produce was—

In 1841, to the value of.....		18,100,000	francs.
1842, "		19,300,000	"
1843, "		13,600,000	"

Nevertheless, certain of our articles are in demand for exportation, and our own colonies take from us the discharged foreign goods. It follows that, without any distinction of origin, the exports of cloth of flax and hemp were—

In 1841,.....	14,000,000	francs.
1842,.....	10,200,000	"
1843,.....	11,700,000	"

And for cambrics and lawns—

In 1841,.....	13,100,000	francs.
1842,.....	8,300,000	"
1843,.....	8,300,000	"

By which accounts, we may combine the exportation of flax and hemp thread at a sum from twelve to fifteen hundred thousand francs.

What is the cause of our inferiority in this ancient business, so conjoined with the cultivation of silk? Because the researches of the awarders might be revealed. But we affirm that, superior to all in the making of lawn, we only depend upon the foreigner for the materials of lace which are used in our chemises. As to the rest, our exportations of fine linen, if our documents are exact, are themselves jeoparded; and in the making

of articles for general use, our competitors have nearly arrived at perfection in articles of luxury and distinction.

Cotton, the first exotic material for France, supplies the place of silk, wool, and flax. By its moderate price, it permits the poorest classes to be conveniently clothed, and completes, at a small expense, the furnishing of their humble abodes; while, by skilful hands, it serves to embellish the richest palaces. Within half a century, the operative efforts in the use of cotton, aided by the extension of its culture, and the fertility of South-eastern America, have produced so powerful a revolution, that it has changed the political equilibrium of states, and modified the condition of the social classes in the most important stations of the globe. The harmony between the two sides of the Atlantic is, perhaps, owing to the cotton trade.

France follows England, but separated at an enormous distance, in the manufacture of cotton. One part of Prussia, Saxony, Belgium, and, above all, Switzerland, participate largely in it. With the exception of the *tulles*, which are sent from England to Switzerland, doubtless to be scattered abroad through the neighboring countries, we perceive that the cotton articles which pass over our territory, come from the countries that we have named.

Our exportations in comparison, for 1843, were—

	French workmanship. *Francs.*	Foreign manufac. *Francs.*
Woven cotton and calico,.....	17,62[illegible],000	1,411,000
Printed linen,.....	49,900,000	12,480,000
Handkerchiefs and challies,.....	4,713,000	6,834,000
Cloth and velvet,.....	974,000	639,000
Tulles and gauzes,.....	1,316,000	9,242,600
Muslin,.....	1,052,000	5,151,000
Hosiery,.....	1,092,000	332,000

Hence, we perceive that the printed linens of Switzerland and Germany displace our own in exports. Foreign handkerchiefs and challies surpass those of Alsace. The muslins of Switzerland and Saxony are five times the amount of those of Taran and St. Quentin, which, nevertheless, appeared so brilliant and beautiful at our recently closed exhibition.

The variety of designs and the richness of colors, the proof of our inventive genius, incessantly reviewing articles in which novelty appeared to be extinct, have, nevertheless, preserved our fabrics of St. Marie aux Mines, and the rich valleys of Alsace, against the intrusion of the grand duchy of Berg, and of Glasgow. That city has displaced us in all the eastern countries as to Cambayas or Bengal cottons, and red handkerchiefs, with which one house covers the whole world.

Within a short period, the English have explored the situation of the cotton manufacture in France.* They found that in four thousand spinning factories, with the exception of those on the Upper Rhine, the looms and machines were imperfect, or deteriorated. In Alsace, the English models are imitated; but the establishment of a well-ordered spinning factory, ordinarily costs thirty per cent more than in England. By the employment of water falls, which can be applied in certain cantons, as in Normandy, and by great economy in fuel, the high price of coal might be

* Manchester Guardian, December, 1843.

remedied. For want of skill to produce numbers of yarn of equal fineness, cotton, valued at 20 or 22 francs per 100 kilogrammes more than that made in England, is used, and that alone declares the disadvantage under which we labor.

If these details are exact, as we believe, they contribute to explain that the evil is in the very source; and that until we improve our spinning factories, our skill in dying and figures will benefit but a small portion of our workmanship.

Our inferiority in spinning is such, that far from participating in the immense exportation of spun cottons which Britain displays, we are obliged to receive from her, in the higher numbers, for our muslins, in spite of the hopes which the protective duty raised ten years ago. The same vital cause, the imperfection of our spinning factories, hinders the development of our trade in hosiery. The department of Le Gard and L'Aube, teach us at what an immense distance we remain for that article. Whether in wool, or cotton, hosiery is very much behind in France; and the high price not only paralyzes exportation, but also the internal consumption.

Let not any person suppose that by this rapid sketch of the tendencies and errors of French industry, we have any design to abate the merit of our working manufacturers. We united with all France in the general eulogy so justly announced. To that praise, the government added high and splendid rewards, proportioned to their claims. An enlightened and conscientious commission more slowly published the motive of their decisions, and doubtless, also, the reasons which guided their judgment. There we certainly shall find, in the use of so many various products, and their influence on the balance of commerce, the correct indications destined to complete the documents in the inquiry of 1834. Ten years have elapsed, and it is important to examine, if the promises made, and the melioration expected, has been obtained, and what causes have delayed the fulfilment of them.

One grand instruction appears to us concealed under the figures in the tables of our commercial movement. There the principle resides, which should strengthen and raise the power of France. Agriculture, skill, commerce, and navigation, are the first links in the chain which terminates in wealth, a revenue, a navy, and power.

We insist earnestly upon the necessity for France to regain the manufacturing of common and marketable articles, because the system of absolute prohibition is daily losing ground. England, which has never desisted from any measure from which she could derive advantage, who formerly made war with Spain that she might have the sole right to supply slaves, and which now strives to make Spain emancipate her slaves, thereby to ruin Havanna, and benefit British India. England invented the system of prohibition, and that stimulant developed her home industry. Now that arm is weakened. Reprisals are too easy, since people understand each other better, and Britain has renounced the system. It is true, too high protecting duties have generally succeeded the prohibition; but that is not the same thing. Relations are not active; nevertheless, they exist; and there is an exchange of various products. For some articles, chiefly clothes of wool and cotton, we only have preserved the regulations of our laws in 1796, and our manufacturers are opposed to any modification of them. But will a change never occur? We think so.

Opinion is enlightened, and a complete interdiction has been unfavorable. It will eventually terminate, and notwithstanding protection duties, however high, we shall yet consume foreign cloths. As far as our skill conveniently resists the competitorship, it is for our interest to produce a good bargain, and to resist, in this connection, that which is otherwise made. It must guard against invasion, and in constant reference to it, it will naturally follow, that the place which it should occupy in reputation will be regained.

The exhibitions, as we have seen, propel us constantly in the contrary way. Fineness, beauty, splendor, are all that is reiterated, because they alone lead to distinction. Good use, intrinsic worth, a good bargain, those are disdained; and, nevertheless, they alone give a vent to articles, and promote the well-being of the people, and the wealth of the country.

All nations by whom labor is honored, and whose attention is turned to the welfare of the poor and laboring classes, seek openings for the excess of their products. Must we address foreign consumers, to offer them only articles for luxury and opulence? or, must we keep in view the purchasers of every grade, even the poor; and, consequently, the daily and useful wants of all the people? This grave question admits not of a dubious solution. The principal trade is that for the mass of mankind!

Perhaps it may be objected, that the workmen employed on rich products, created by means of great skill of workmanship, are better paid than those who are employed in common articles. We grant it, although there are examples to the contrary. Thus we hear that a species of work is suppressed; but one means to give employment to more people, is to engage in simpler objects appropriate to a larger class of wants. The wages would be less, if less skill was required; but under a climate less severe than that of Germany and England, with more resources for convenient nourishment, the wages would suffice; since in mixing certain operations with agricultural labor, the subsistence of the workman would have two points of support, and never would arrive at the excess of misery to which the extreme division of labor has conducted the neighboring population of Britain.

In reference to wages, we cannot resist painful impressions, when we saw displayed at the exhibition, the various products finished in the houses of solitary punishment. We can conceive the embarrassment of society in the presence of men who are banished; nevertheless, by the system now adopted, all the conditions of slavery, and not the penalties of a prison, are revived. Their work is sold to a speculator, who carries it to the best possible market; and who, by means of the imposed task, and of the coercion which the administration grants to him, strives to obtain the greatest part. Certainly that is servile labor; and we may blame ourselves, if it should interfere with the work of freemen. Rough and gross work, the extension of which is indefinite, offers no inconvenience, and leads not to any perturbation of business, if society employ criminals in it; but the prisoner who works in brass, marble, gloves, or other similar articles, by his position, reduces the wages of the workman who competes with him. It is slave work in the midst of free labor.

Almost all the numerous colonies which France settled upon the globe, have been severed from her. In her unwise apathy, she misunderstood the value of those which remained to her, and which annually sink deeper into the misery which is assigned to them. Not one person is occupied

for their relief or redress; and when energetic and enlightened men have endeavored to amend the lot of distant countries, all vanishes before the miserable act of the colonies still belonging to France. Fifteen thousand Frenchmen are at Montevideo; and if Mexico had not adopted her inhospitable laws, we should have been scarcely able to enumerate our fellow citizens who would there be residents. Our compatriots roam everywhere, except where France holds the sway. Those of the Germanic race, and their neighbors, the Swabians, all remove to the United States. Great power is lost to France, without her obtaining by the sacrifice, any favor. We have neither distant possessions, nor barbarous people to govern; therefore our commercial situation demands more study and care.

Openings for trade are obtained and preserved only by constant activity and watchfulness. If the progress of a rival is developed, it should be be met by equal advancement. Sleep must not overcome France. Commerce is transacted by her, without her, and without disquieting her. She feels too little concern for it, and all is said in mutual compliments.

We cannot penetrate the secret of cabinet deliberations, but there, above all, the spirit of order and tradition appears defective. Sometimes the weightiest interests of our ancient commercial relations are neglected or forgotten; then, from some sudden circumstance, other errors excite and infatuate. A diplomatist, displaced from political considerations, dreams that China has consented to a treaty with a European nation, and it is said that we ought to bring that empire to the same concession. A showy armament soon carries out an ambassador, and his suite, and commercial delegates, all meritorious persons, delighted to have a long voyage to make, during which they may acquire the information belonging to their mission, and above all, the languages, even European, which will be necessary, and of which they all are ignorant. France stands with eyes fixed upon the expedition, from which she expects instructions hitherto unknown, and yet what can be learned from China, which is not known to commerce, and even by the ministry, perfectly? If our connection with China has to be developed, it must be by a larger consumption of tea, and some drugs, of porcelain, and various articles of skill, like those which we call "articles of Paris." As to exportations, England pays us annually a species of tribute for renouncing the immoral traffic in opium; but that which, then, is most important, is her trade in spun cotton, calicoes of great breadth, cloths of appropriate dimensions and moderate price, camblets, &c., all of them articles in which our infirmity is acknowledged; because that trade requires not articles for luxury, but for common usefulness. The Americans also know all that subject; and while we are deliberating upon the attempts which we should make, the single city of Boston, in the United States, in 1843, loaded for the Indian ocean, the east, and the south, sixty-six vessels, of which, sixteen were despatched for Canton, and other points of China. But we need not overvalue this incident, the development of which will soon come. Our circumnavigating expedition has other missions that may indemnify us; among others, not to bring silks from China, but to learn their methods of culture, that they may be introduced among us.

To regulate the development of French industry, to contribute to place it as much as possible in a durable state of independence of the caprices and variations of fashion, the government must concur with the

trade. The merchant, at his risk and hazard, must seek for the openings, ascertain the wants of divers people, discover those who are dissatisfied, and consider the means to provide them with what our skill offers. The duty of government is to follow commerce, step by step, in its researches, to watch over it with our navy, and to offer it the support of consular agents, even before the want of them is felt. Those agents should have a double commission, to protect the citizens, and to ascertain the complaints which their method of traffic might produce. We all know that on the return of an expedition from a distance, if any article of export has succeeded, the seaman fails not in making a new order, to inform the manufacturer that he wishes to have something more advantageous, that he may save appearances by diminishing the quality and the price. The article thus depreciated, is carried to the consumer, as of the same value, and is only known by use. French merchandise thus is discredited, and our celebrity and character are lost without recovery.

The commercial system of France, in its connection with the foreign regulations, is combined with four or five ministerial departments. That of foreign affairs, regulates diplomacy, names the consuls and agents from whom our traders may claim aid and protection. The naval follows our mercantile navigation over all seas, to sustain and defend it, and nominates the colonial authorities. That of finance, guardians of the treasury, interposes in all questions of taxes and tariffs. The ministers of agriculture and commerce requires from all the others the instruction and information which only thus indirectly reach him. Limited in its jurisdiction, more limited still in its sphere of action, it interferes not in any thing important, and only enounces opinions without the power to enforce them. The notions of assimilation and of centralizing, which even occupy us more than the results of governmental action, have so regulated the affairs of the administration, that the minister demands the work from a director, and he refers to a chief clerk, who transmits the requisition to his inferiors. The report is returned in the same manner, accompanied by successive notes. If needful, it is new-modelled in its course, but without ever being the product of serious discussion, for all of it passes between the superior and the subordinate. Under the minister, every man is as a wheel, which takes care not to go out of its catch, because the whole government would be affected by it. What can be expected that is serious, dignified, or coherent, for the commercial prosperity of a country, from such an organization? Where shall we find the opinions, the remembrances of enterprises long conceived and reflected upon, and a connected plan which may guide the successors whom the policy of the times and of men should direct? We conceive of a minister at the head of the department of commerce, a political man changing with his party; but relying for those great interests, upon the opinion discussed before him by the members of his office, chosen for capacity and experience, knowing no other change than the ordinary mutations of life include, and originating resolves stamped with energy and continuance. A similar department might take its place with equal claim, of directors selected from the other branches of the administration, whose concurrence might be necessary, who might deliberate in the presence of all those ministers interested in the topic. All would retire from such an assembly, enlightened by the counsel which would emanate from it. The department of commerce would render the temporary commissions superfluous; a very

small number of which finish their work by useful and practical deliberation. It should also render useless the superior council, which includes illustrious names, but few enlightened men in present practical business. The prospects of our still remaining colonies, the creation of new establishments, our commercial relations with all people, the dignity of the French name, the interests of our navy, the direction of our skill, would be perpetual subjects of meditation. Commercial confidence would increase, and perhaps we should perceive that the repugnance of French merchants, to commence trading houses in distant countries, would cease.

Peace between the great powers has now been established for thirty years; and, notwithstanding the clouds which events sometimes raise, the interests of all people and governments are too deeply combined with it, for the most stormy passions to trouble it. War places the commerce of the world in the hands of nations who maintain their neutrality, and no one is willing to aggrandize the fortune and wealth of his rival. The world, therefore, is open to all who are willing and able to improve it. Still there are countries already withdrawn from general activity, monopolized by protection or colonization; but that which yet remains, offers immense resources, and French commerce should not be discouraged. The duty of our government is to accompany trade in its operations; and wherever our citizens may be called, there to station consular agents in a sufficient number for needful protection. Not only should those employments be divided among worthy, enlightened, and decided men, capable of making the flag that waves over their mansions respected, but in requiring of them high qualities and various knowledge, the public authority should also give them the means to exercise over those around them a legitimate influence, and to sustain the rank which they should guard. In the two Americas, in Asia, in the Eastern countries, in the Levant, our consuls should live upon an equality with the agents of other European nations, otherwise their efforts will be paralyzed. The country cannot, without shame, draw back from sacrifices, the end of which is to secure to France a larger share in the trade of the world. At Manilla, Canton, Macao, Calcutta, Bombay, &c., everywhere, to English or American houses, our merchants and captains are obliged to consign their goods; and French agencies would more easily be established, if judicious and able consuls were present to sanction them.

We are induced to believe that an exhibition like that which has just closed, might be succeeded by a much more profitable institution, that should unite and place before us foreign products, both those of competition, and those of distant countries, which might serve for models. The instruction which our workmen received from each other, and which they have given to the foreigner, they would obtain in return, and the advantages of it would be immense.

With the president of the umpires,* we admired the magnificence of our silks, while deploring that plain silks, ribbons, and Creveld velvets, the products of England, Switzerland, and Prussia, should supersede our own among foreigners; and the fineness of our cloths, the perfection of our laces; regretting to see that if we make the lawn and the cambric, we want England for the thread, and Belgium for the cloth; and the lightness of our challies, fearing that a change in the fashion at some time

* Discourse of M. Thenard, Moniteur of July 31.

will hazard a business which furnishes the value of 7,000,000 of francs for exportation, while the cloth-trade, a sure and regular manufacture, remains stationary or decreases; and the richness of our tapesty, which makes but little progress for domestic use, because the high price banishes those articles from unassuming habitations. With regard to the others, we adhere to the general praise. Notwithstanding, when the results are so serious, the rejoicings of vanity should be considered as altogether fruitless. D. L. R.

Art. II.—THE CHINA TRADE.

The negotiation of a new commercial treaty between the United States and the government of China, by which it is understood that our own commerce with this empire is placed upon the same basis as that of Great Britain, is an important feature of our recent foreign diplomacy. That singular people, has, it is well known, heretofore kept itself in a great measure aloof from the intimate intercourse sanctioned among modern civilized states, as well by reciprocal treaty, as the law of nations; and the thunder of British batteries along their frontier has induced them to enrol themselves in the list of governments who meet upon an amicable footing of mutual trade and commerce, and are bound by certain fixed and conventional principles of international law. Although there appears yet to be lurking among the great body of the Chinese, in Canton, a deep rooted jealousy and hatred of foreigners, which has recently manifested itself in some high handed measures on their part, there is but little doubt that the present arrangement will be of substantial benefit to the commerce of this country. By the arrangement made with the British government, which, as has been remarked, is alleged to be similar to our own, merchantmen are permitted to enter the ports of Canton, Fuchan, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, they complying with certain rules that have been established for the regulation of commerce. It is moreover stipulated that Americans may trade with any of the native merchants they please, while the Chinese engage that if any of their native merchants abscond or incur debts which they are unable to discharge, the proper authorities will strive to bring them to justice, and if those debts are in any mode lost, there shall be no appeal to the former custom of the Hong merchants, by which they were bound to make good those losses thus incurred.

In consequence of the new aspect thus given to our commercial relations with China, we propose to devote the present paper to a consideration of the rise and progress of our trade with that nation. We are enabled to do so with the greater confidence from the possession of recent materials which have come to hand. An intelligent and respectable individual who has been long practically acquainted with the China trade, has recently compiled a pamphlet,* throwing new light upon the subject, and from the authentic information which he has afforded us, we propose to draw somewhat largely, because it is a subject of more than ordinary interest to the commercial portion of the American public.

* Remarks on China and the China trade, by R. B. Forbes. Boston: Samuel N. Dickenson, 1844.

It appears that soon after the termination of the war between Great Britain and America, several merchants in New York and Philadelphia being desirous of opening a commerce with Canton, a ship was purchased, called the "Empress of China," of 360 tons burthen, loaded with gensing, and sailed from New York on the 22d of February, 1784, with a view to exchange her cargo for teas and the various sorts of Chinese manufactures. This ship was manned with forty-six souls, and probably mounted ten or more guns, carrying between four and five hundred tons of China cargo. She reached China on the 23d of August, after a voyage of about six months, set sail from that port on the 31st of December of the same year, and returned to New York on the 11th of May, having been absent fourteen and a half months. The arrival of the "Empress of China," which was accompanied upon the voyage by two French ships, the Triton and the Fabius, was at that time deemed a matter of no little importance, and upon her entrance at Macao Roads she was visited by the French consul and several gentlemen, when mutual salutations, by the firing of guns, were passed. At that period the city of Macao was in much the same condition as it has been since, until the late controversy between the Chinese and the British government. Then a Portuguese settlement at the mouth of the Canton river, it had a governor who was nominated by the king of Portugal; yet its very existence depended upon the will of the Chinese, who had the power of dispossessing the Portuguese at their option, a circumstance that induced a careful circumspection lest they should give offence. This, it would seem, is the present position of the city of Macao, which is still held by the Portuguese, although less under the direct authority of the Chinese government.

That prominent body of men, the Hong merchants of China, have borne so important a part in the commerce of the empire, that they deserve to be considered, although as a class they no longer exist, in consequence of the new order of things. This class of merchants was comprised of twelve or more individuals, who were licensed by the gevernment to carry on the foreign trade, and who were held responsible for the good conduct of foreigners, as well as for the collection of the imperial duties of import and export by the local government of Canton. They were, in fact, the keepers of the foreign community at that port, exercising a rigid guardianship over their conduct, and preserved the order of the community by a vigilant police, and some annoying exactions. Their places of business were in the suburbs of Canton, near the points called "factories," which were the foreign places of abode, and were termed "Hongs," the meaning of which is, a block of houses fronting upon the river, and running back two or three hundred yards, and divided by small court yards into five, six, or more factories. The residences of the merchants were of much the same character, although the buildings were appropriated to the storage of goods, the fronts being near the river, where the "chopboats" could be laden with merchandise in order to be transported to the ships at Whampoa, which is ten or twelve miles below Canton.

The supervisor of the Hong merchants was the "hoppo," or collector of customs, who was the principal agent appointed by the government for the superintendence of the foreign tra le, and who derived the emoluments of his office, not only from a stipulated salary, but also from numerous perquisites springing from exactions and fees paid into his hands by subordinate officers, who were mandarins, that name being given to all who

held either a civil or military office. The Hong merchants were also termed "security merchants," inasmuch as they were responsible to the "hoppo," not only for the payment of duties, but also for the good conduct of the ship's company to the local government of Canton. It has been remarked that the Hong merchants, or the Co-Hong, as they were named in their collective capacity, enjoyed the exclusive monopoly of the foreign trade, yet this must be taken with some exceptions. The small shopkeepers who were termed "outside men," because they were out of the Hong monopoly, were permitted to sell, in limited parcels, the limit, however, depending upon arrangement, and they sometimes were even allowed, in accordance with an understanding with the Hong merchants, to ship off large quantities of silk.

As the foreign trade was prosecuted in great measure through the agency of the Hong merchants, they were deemed a fixed body of men, and it was difficult for those who had once enlisted in this body, to retire. This could only be done by bankruptcy, and as a bankrupt Hong merchant was liable to a sentence of banishment to "Glee," or the "Cold Country," that mode of retirement was attended with other unpleasant consequences. Two of the most responsible of the Co-Hong monopoly were generally selected as the "senior Hong merchants," and upon those, the local government of Canton, as well as the other members, endeavored to place all the responsibility of the foreign trade. Honqua and Monqua, held the last named office for a long time, and were deemed the agents through which all the communications with foreigners were prosecuted. It was made binding upon the Hong merchants to pay to the "hoppo," for the imperial treasury, the largest amount of duties possible, and any merchant failing thus to pay such duties, was to be banished to Glee, the cold country to which we have alluded, a place situated in the northwestern corner of the empire.

During the existence of the East India company, whose charter in China expired in 1834, the Co-Hong were bound to make good to them any losses arising from the insolvency of a Hong merchant. Since that period, in order to raise a fund for the payment of such losses, certain arbitrary duties have been exacted in addition to the imperial duties, and are held under the name of the "Consoo Fund," every merchant engaged in the China trade being bound to contribute to this fund. It was originally established in 1494, by Pankequa, the general dictator to the Co-Hong, who had the shrewdness to exempt from taxation many articles in which he was himself interested. The amount collected for each year, has of course varied, but it has been usually quite large, in order to pay subordinate duties to mandarins, the debts of Hong merchants, and the fees to the government in Pekin. During one year the "consoo chargo" amounted to about 436,000 taels, or 606,000 dollars.

The responsibilities of the Hong merchants have rendered the situation anything but enviable. They were, in fact, a body of police appointed by the government to take care of the foreign trade, as well as foreigners, in their ports. During the year 1793 there were twelve Hongs, and in 1808 there were fourteen, with the following names: Pankequa, Mouqua, Puiqua, Chunqua, Tonqua, Gnewqua, Exchin, Mankop, Poonqua, Lyqua, Kinqua, Fatqua, and Fouqua. In April, of 1834, the monopoly of the East India company being at an end, the Co-Hong consisted of thirteen, whose names we here give. Houqua, Mouqua, Pankequa, Goqua, Kinqua,

Hingtae, Mingqua, Saoqua, Punhorqua, Samqua, Footae, Lumqua, and Takqua. Many of those Hong merchants, however, failed ultimately, some were banished, and large sums were paid in behalf of insolvents from money accumulated for that purpose, a considerable portion of which came out of the consoo fund.

The mode in which the business was transacted under the Hong merchants was the following. Upon the arrival of a ship at Whampoa, the supercargo, or consignee, applied to the Hong merchant, to "secure" the ship, which was nothing less than receiving the cargo into his warehouse, and undertaking to pay the duties to the government. It was understood that the party who received the cargo and undertook the payment of the duties, was the individual to furnish the outward cargo, or at all events, the medium through which it was to be shipped. It was, moreover, customary for the Hong to purchase himself, a considerable portion of the cargo which he received. It was usual, indeed, until within the last eight or ten years for the Hong not only to purchase somewhat extensively of the import cargo, but also to sell largely on his own account, teas, the price of which was settled by contract of the East India company. These contracts embraced a large portion of the teas. The samples of these teas came to Canton in September, and the boxes arrived afterward. But since the expiration of the charter of the East India company, in 1834, it has been customary to wait until the teas arrived in market, when they are offered for sale to general competition, and the tea trade has thus fallen into the hands of private merchants.

Previous to the late treaty, the port charges, it appears, were excessive, but since that time they have been somewhat diminished. Besides the port charges which were comprised under the general term of "cumsha and measurement," there were also charges for inward and outward pilotage, and the "linguist" and "compradors" fees, amounting to between six hundred and a thousand dollars on a ship of five or six hundred tons. The next duty, after engaging a "security" merchant and a linguist, was, to enter into a bond that the ship entering the port did not contain opium, and that should it be discovered, the party offending would await legal trial and punishment. This bond was signed by the captain in duplicate, one copy being presented to the governor and the other to the "hoppo." When the bond was thus duly given, permission was granted to unload, and "chopboats" were despatched by the Hong merchants, to receive the cargo, accompanied by the linguist, or his clerks, and officers from the "hoppo's" office, in order to see that the proceedings were transacted in due form of law. The system of barter was, moreover, not uncommon in the early trade to China, but for many years past, it would seem, that payments in cash, or a credit of from sixty to ninety days, has been customary in the more recent commerce with the empire.

The "linguist" was one of the most prominent actors in the foreign trade of China, and it may not be uninteresting here to consider his character. He was a sort of public servant, being the "runner," as he has been called between the office of the hoppo, the foreign merchant, and the Hong merchant, bearing the burdens and encountering the complaints of all three, in case any thing went wrong. He was always ready to act as the agent for these three parties, providing a consideration was granted to him, and was the slave of each. Without honesty, he was expected to utter falsehoods for his masters, and was admitted on all sides to be a tho-

rough and unscrupulous rogue. The entire trading population of China, has in fact, established a character for knavery which we trust may be improved by a more frequent connection with nations in which a higher code of morality prevails. This remark, however, will not apply to the Hong merchants, for they have been found as a body uniformly honorable, intelligent, accurate accountants, punctual to their contracts, and as respectable in their characters as the merchants of any country, seeming to prize highly a good reputation.

The early foreign trade with Canton, it appears, has been considerable. Mr. Samuel Shaw, who first sailed to that port in the "Empress of China," to which we have alluded, states that in 1787–8, there were the following ships with their cargoes in the port of Canton, besides twenty-four country ships, five English ships, and one American brig called the "Eleonora," within the vicinity of Macao.

English,	28, with.....	500.38	piculs of ginseng.
Dutch,	5, with.....	25.05	"
Swedes,	2, with.....	19.51	"
Danes,	2, with.....	9.48	"
French,	3, with	115.99	"
Prussian,	1, with.....	3.69	"
Tuscan,	1, with.....	.....	"
American,	1, with.....	52.18	"
	43 ships to pass the cape.	726.28	piculs.
	31 country ships bound back to India.		
	4 Portuguese, at Macao, bound to Lisbon.		

Total,... 78, and one more expected from England, and one from Bombay. And in 1788–9, he informs us that were 43 to pass the cape, viz:—

English,.....	21	Spanish,.....	2
Swedes,.....	2	American,.....	4
Danes,.....	2	Portuguese,.....	7
French,.....	1		
Dutch,.....	4	Total,.....	43

A brief account of the trade in tea, which has long been one of the principal staples of China, may be of some value. As early as 1784, the consumption of tea by Great Britain and its dependencies, was about 14,000,000 pounds. Three years afterward, namely, in 1787–8, there were exported from China by British ships 21,407,066 pounds net, and we may judge somewhat of the enormous increase of the tea trade in China, from the fact that during the year 1834, the last year of the existence of the East India company, there were 23,369,600 pounds of black tea, and 4,977,600 pounds of green tea exported to Great Britain by that company, besides 3,870,000 pounds on private account, making a total of 33,218,000 pounds. During the years 1833–34, the total British trade to China was valued at $23,476,793, while the value of the bullion exported from China at the same time was $6,217,820. There were at that period between 13,000,000 and 14,000,000 pounds of cotton exported to the empire by the company, and a large quantity by private traders, making the total amount, 54,557,500 pounds, valued at about $6,500,000, besides 17,600 chests of opium, which were carried to China, and sold for $11,618,000. From these data, we may form some estimate of the amount of the early China trade, as well as that which has been carried on during a more recent period.

It appears that the establishment of an extensive trade with the empire of China has long been a favorite object with the British government. From the year 1637, the date of the first record of the East India Company, at Canton, down to the present time, numerous embassies have been sent to the Imperial Government, and it would seem not without success, when we view the present extent of the British commerce, which is now carried on with that nation. It is seen by the returns from its ports, that much the greater part of its commerce is now carried on in British ships.

We would now direct our attention to the trade of our own country with China. Among the principal articles of export from that empire, have been teas, nankins, China-ware and silks. A very considerable trade has been, moreover, prosecuted with that nation, in the article of nankins, and in 1820 we exported 3,135,000 pieces; but this species of importation gradually declined, so that now there is scarcely a single piece brought into the country. A large quantity of Lowell sheetings and drillings is exported by us to China, and being re-dyed, is carried from the empire to the Pacific ocean. So, also, in the article of China-ware, a considerable quantity was formerly imported, but at present only a fancy set occasionally finds its way into our own ports. In the article of silks, the change of our trade, with China, has been very decided. From 1822 to 1827, the imports of silk ranged from 372,000 to 144,000 pieces, and it has been somewhat diminished to the present time. By silks are included all those materials of which silks make the fabric; and one reason, perhaps, of the former large importations by us, was the fact, that the great bulk of the silks, thus brought into the country, were crapes and pongees, to assume the form of handkerchiefs, not only for our own use, but also for re-exportation. Sugar also was exported from China to this country in considerable quantity, it having reached the average amount of 4,500,000 pounds for a series of years, between 1817 and 1821, and the amount has been gradually diminished, with occasional exceptions, to the present time. We have also exported in American vessels from China, camphor, cassia lignæ, raw silk, sweetmeats, vermillion and matting, with numerous other articles of minor value. At the present time, however, the principal articles of export from the empire are tea, cassia and matting. Canton crapes being passed by, and China silks being forgotten, if we except the white, the scarlet, and the black.

The tea trade being one of the most prominent enterprises connected with the Chinese empire, deserves, perhaps, a more particular description. This plant has now extended itself into general use in our own country, and it is from China that we derive the entire amount of this valuable product. The subjoined tables exhibit the exports of tea, from China, in American vessels from 1804 to 1820, and also the imports of tea into the United States from 1821 to 1829. It may be remarked, however, in further explanation of the last table, that, in consequence of anticipated troubles growing out of the China war with Great Britain, there were exported in 1840, by the Americans, 250,000 chests, of which quantity 200,000 were green; 108,000 chests only were exported in 1840–41, a part of which time Canton river was blockaded; during 1841–42, there were 155,000 chests, and during the year following, there were 175,000. We here exhibit the amount of the exports of the principal staple, tea, in American vessels during the periods stated.

Season.	Chests of black.	Chests of green.	Total chests.	Lbs.
1804–5,.....	54,145	41,844	95,989	7,679,120
1805–6,.....	54,770	68,086	122,856	9,830,480
1806–7,.....	41,265	77,262	118,527	9,402,160
1807–8,.....	32,052	38,628	70,681	5,654,480
1808–9,.....	3,033	16,496	19,529	1,562,320
1809–10,.....	52,048	63,263	115,311	9,224,880
1810–11,.....	4,072	28,622	32,694	2,615,520
1811–12,.....	5,977	37,734	43,711	3,496,880
1812–13,.....	8,776	9,184	17,960	1,436,800
1813–15,.....	9,911	8,456	18,367	1,469,360
1815–16,.....	52,926	43,614	96,540	7,723,200
1816–17,.....	52,259	65,137	117,396	9,391,680
1817–18,.....	43,870	77,393	121,263	9,701,040
1818–19,.....	57,744	92,697	150,441	12,035,280
1819–20,.....	56,164	75,323	131,487	10,519,160

The following were the imports into the United States :—

Season.	Lbs.	Val. in dolls.	Season.	Lbs.	Val. in dolls.
1821,.....	4,973,463	1,320,929	1832,.....	9,894,181	2,783,488
1822,.....	6,636,705	1,858,962	1833,.....	14,637,486	5,483,088
1823,.....	8,208,895	2,360,350	1834,.....	16,267,852	6,211,028
1824,.....	8,919,210	2,785,683	1835,.....	14,403,458	4,517,775
1825,.....	10,178,972	3,725,675	1836,.....	16,347,344	5,331,486
1826,.....	10,072,898	3,740,415	1837,.....	16,942,122	5,893,262
1827,.....	5,868,828	1,711,185	1838,.....	14,411,337	3,494,363
1828,.....	7,689,305	2,443,002	1839,.....	9,296,679	2,413,283
1829,.....	6,595,033	2,045,645			
1830,.....	8,584,799	2,421,711	Total,...	195,106,125	61,957,315
1831,.....	5,177,557	1,416,045			

Our exports to Canton consist mainly of American cotton goods, American lead, ginseng, specie, and bills of credit on London. Ginseng, a valued product of the western states, has been, for a long time, a prominent staple of export to China, and Turkey opium has been sold to the Chinese by the Americans, in small quantities, so also has quicksilver, as well as a considerable amount of lead. The trade in furs to China formerly constituted no inconsiderable portion of the export trade. From the northwest coast of America, the fur trade was carried on with great profit, and large quantities were shipped in our own vessels, by the way of the Pacific ocean. The seal trade of the Pacific, also, formerly found large and profitable markets in China, but this, like many other staples of export, has become very much diminished. We subjoin a table, however, showing the amount of this trade for a series of years, which is much greater than at the present time. The table exhibits the quantity of furs carried to China by the way of the Pacific ocean, mainly in American ships.

1804–5,.....	11,003	sea-otters.	181,000	seal-skins.	8,756	beavers.	67,000	nutrias
1805–6,.....	17,445	"	140,297	"	34,460	"		
1806–7,.....	14,251	"	261,200	"	23,368	"		
1807–8,.....	16,647	"	100,000	"	11,750	"	and land-otters.	
1808–9,.....	7,944	"	34,000	"	5,170	"	3,400	"
1809–10,....	11,000	"	.....	"	20,000	"	15,000	"
1810–11,....	9,200	"	45,000	"	14,200	"	15,000	"
1811–12,....	11,593	"	173,000	"	20,000	"	12,000	"
							and 145,000	nutrias.
1812–13,....	8,222	"	109,000	"	2,320	beavers,	2,000	l'nd-otters.

Without entering into a particular description of minor articles of trade with China, we would allude especially to the progress which is making by our countrymen in the export to that nation of American cotton goods;

56,178 pieces of British long cloths, were carried to China by the Americans in 1832, and only 10,334 pieces of domestics. We subjoin a table showing the number of pieces of British long cloths and domestics, exported by Americans, from 1832, to 1838.

In 1832–33, of long cloths,.....	61,953 pieces.	Domestics,.....	20,156 pieces.
1833–34, "	134,100 "	"	32,743 "
1834–35, "	71,639 "	"	53,331 "
1836–37, "	120,000 "	"	12,000 "
1837–38, "	1,600 "	"	117,000 "

The exportation of our own manufactured goods, has, however, gradually increased; for in 1842, and the early part of 1843, there were shipped more than 500,000 pieces of American cottons for the Chinese market. The opening of four new ports to British ships, by the late treaty with England, induced the belief that new and proportionately extensive markets would be open to foreign fabrics; and, in consequence of this conviction, shipments were made from the British ports, of plain cotton goods, exceeding those of the preceding year, more than 23,000,000 of yards, and of colored cotton goods, more than 5,000,000 of yards. The result of those shipments, from Great Britain and the United States was, that the markets of China became glutted, and in October, of 1843, the prices of the goods in Canton were below the cost of their manufacture in Lowell and Manchester. More recent advices, give us the information, however, that the stocks are diminishing. In order to exhibit a general view of the American trade with the empire for a series of years, we give the following table :—

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO CHINA, BY AMERICAN VESSELS.

Seasons.	No. of ships.	Tonnage.	Amount of specie.	Am't bills and mdze.	Mdze.	Total value of imports.
1804–05,.....	34	10,159	$2,902,000	$653,818	.....	$3,555,818
1805–06,.....	42	12,480	4,176,000	1,150,358	.....	5,326,358
1806–07,.....	37	11,268	2,895,000	982,362	.....	3,877,362
1807–08,.....	33	8,805	3,032,000	908,090	.....	3,940,090
1808–09,.....	8	2,215	70,000	409,850	.....	479,850
1809–10,.....	37	12,512	4,723,000	1,021,600	.....	5,744,600
1810–11,.....	16	4,748	2,330,000	568,800	.....	2,898,800
1811–12,.....	25	7,406	1,876,000	1,256,810	.....	3,132,810
1812–13,.....	8	1,816	616,000	837,000	.....	1,453,000
1813–15,.....	9	2,854	.....	.....	.....	451,500
1815–16,.....	30	10,208	1,922,000	605,500	.....	2,527,500
1816–17,.....	38	13,096	4,545,000	1,064,600	.....	5,609,600
1817–18,.....	39	14,325	5,601,000	1,475,828	.....	7,076,828
1818–19,.....	47	16,377	7,369,000	2,507,208	.....	9,876,208
1819–20,.....	43	15,145	6,259,300	1,926,500	.....	8,185,800
1820–21,.....	26	8,663	2,659,500	1,375,500	.....	4,035,000
1821–22,.....	45	15,597	5,125,000	3,074,741	.....	8,199,741
1822–23,.....	40	14,557	6,292,840	2,046,549	.....	8,339,389
1823–24,.....	34	13,069	4,096,000	2,219,127	.....	6,315,127
1824–25,.....	43	16,262	6,524,500	2,337,545	.....	8,962,045
1825–26,.....	42	16,431	5,725,000	2,051,301	.....	7,776,301
1826–27,.....	26	9,566	1,841,168	2,402,449	.....	4,243,617
1827–28,.....	29	12,090	2,640,300	2,754,597	.....	5,394,897
1828–29,.....	27	8,613	1,388,500	2,642,365	.....	4,030,865
1829–30,.....	34	11,670	1,123,644	3,187,638	.....	4,311,282
1830–31,.....	24	7,986	183,655	4,039,821	.....	4,223,476
				Bills alone.		
1831–32,.....	34	.....	757,252	2,480,371	2,457,184	5,695,307
1832–33,.....	59	.....	672,519	4,429,659	2,907,936	8,010,114
1833–34,.....	47	.....	1,029,178	3,656,290	5,202,033	9,887,501
1837–38,.....	...	.....	678,350	3,142,000	1,370,761	5,191,111

It appears that when there is a large amount of tonnage in the port of Canton, the tea merchants are usually firm in their demands, and the sales are ready, inasmuch as there is great anxiety to procure cargoes, and to return first with freight. When, however, there are but few ships, the merchants are anxious to sell, and the prices are low; importation is more moderate, and is attended with greater profit. In 1840, as has been seen, a large quantity of tea was exported from China, in American vessels, and the prices here were kept up by the blockade of the Canton river, and the apprehensions of a short supply for 1840–41, from the hostile attitude of Great Britain toward China, during a short time succeeding.

As it regards the opium trade, it would seem that it is conducted in much the same mode as it was previous to the late war with Great Britain. The subject of opium is not even alluded to in the late treaty, and although the agents of the British government profess to exclude it from the ports recently opened, there appears to be an implied consent on the part of the Chinese authorities, to its admission. Opium is now raised in large amount by the East India Company, and full cargoes are shipped to China. Thus the Chinese have not gained a single point by their resistance, and this pernicious drug is still carrying its thousands throughout the empire to untimely graves.

The negotiation of the late treaty, will place the commerce of China upon a new footing. By the British treaty, the new system of trade was to commence on the 27th of July, 1843, and four new ports, as we have already seen, have been opened. The increase of the consumption of teas and silks in our own country, it is believed by those who are practically acquainted with the China trade, will most directly cause the increase of our trade with that nation, and enable us to find a market there for a large amount of domestic goods. At first, we must expect the ordinary results of glutted markets and overtrading; for when an empire of such vast commercial resources as that of China is first opened, the enterprises of commercial men will be naturally directed to that particular point, and produce such results. We now pay for about 12,000,000 of pounds of teas, some hundreds of thousands of dollars of silks, matting, cassia, and other articles of less value, by our domestic goods, lead, ginseng and other minor exports. That an important change has already come over the prospects of the Chinese empire, there is but little doubt. The Hong monopoly has been abolished, and so have the Consoo charges. The use of some of our own domestic products being introduced into the five ports, will probably open new markets for their sale. Their more immediate contact with the nations of our own time, will probably work some change in the manners of the people, and their modes of thought, and in the consequent demands of their commerce. The guns of a British fleet, although we conceive unjustly, have battered in the walls of their cities chinks, through which will stream the light of Christianity and modern civilization. According to the present condition of the China trade, our exports must balance our imports from that nation. The surplus funds of the Celestial Empire, now seem to be required to pay for the opium which is cultivated under the auspices of the East India Company, and shipped to its ports. Were this trade abolished, substantial blessings would flow down upon that extraordinary people, and our own commerce, with that nation, would be placed upon a more prosperous basis.

Art. III.—SEWERAGE FOR CITIES.

THE SEWERAGE OF NEW YORK.*

The city of New York stands unrivalled for the magnificence and extent of her works for introducing water into houses; as yet, however, no provision has been made for its discharge.

The stream which was arrested in its progress through its own channel to the sea, and turned into the city of New York, through a well constructed aqueduct, has now no proper means of escape to the ocean; but is nevertheless brought in from day to day through an unfailing medium, and poured into the earth, to find its way slowly through vaults and cellars, and among foundations, to the great reservoir into which all waters descend.

From this source, and the consequent accumulation of rain and spring water, injury has already resulted, in the extensive partial filling up of cellars by the water—a serious evil lies before us in its probable effect upon health. The question is, when and how these shall be remedied?

It is but little the custom of America to provide in advance of actual difficulty, for dangers which proper care might prevent; but when we have examples, and the warnings of the old world, in regard to a particular evil, spread before us copiously; (examples and warnings founded on bitter experience,) it may well be deemed matter of astonishment, if not of just reproach, against our public men, that they are not regarded.

We do not think there can be any difference of opinion among reflecting people as to the fact that many of the diseases which appear in various quarters of our state, derive their origin, and others, their malignant type, for the most part, from defective drainage. This city, in addition to all the natural elements of this danger, is obnoxious to more than usual suffering from having an entire river turned into the bowels of the earth, to linger there, until it can find its way through an unfavorable sub-stratum to the sea.

Dr. Thomas Southwood Smith, physician of the London fever hospital, who has earned for himself, by his published works, a wide and just celebrity, was called before a committee of Parliament for examination in regard to fevers in London, and he states that when a fever exists, its locality may be determined by an inspection of the map of London, in the office of the commissioners of sewers, "for where the sewers are, there the fevers are not, where the sewers are not, there the fever is."

London, for years back, has been aware of this difficulty; and by the most unwearied efforts, has been endeavoring to correct it. The extent, and excellence of her sewers has long been a matter of wonder to all of that class of travellers who go abroad with some useful object, and so famous have they become, that her example is about to be imitated in many quarters of Europe; the opinion being universal, that the system has the marks about it of the best intelligence and wisdom which are concentrated in that great metropolis.

We have no means of arriving at the exact extent, indeed they have not in London, of the sewers already constructed in the seven districts

* The Mayor's message recommending Sewers. First report of the commissioners for inquiring into the state of the large towns and populous districts of England and Wales

into which that city is divided. In two of them, the Holborn and Finsbury divisions, there are three hundred and fifty-three miles of sewers, and of drains leading into them. This enormous quantity, in two districts only, enables her to outstrip, far, the boast which Rome for ages was able to make, that she was unexcelled in those important contrivances.

We remember as long as we can remember anything of Roman history, her famous cloacæ, or sewers, which were so capacious that barges were said to have floated through them. Their construction was attributed by many to the time of Tarquin, but such was their size, that they were supposed by others to be the remains of an older city, "their dimensions being considered disproportionate to the then infant city of Rome." Vitruvius, however, shows that the supposition was erroneous. "The Romans," he says, "were a peculiarly municipal people. When the external walls were built, the next object was, the best means of disposing of the area between them; the streets were set out to exclude winds injurious to comfort, and all the sewers and drains were well considered. Laws were established, which prevented individuals from doing anything which could interfere with the public health or enjoyment. These were the first and chief considerations. Every man in Rome had a cistern, and a constant supply of water for domestic purposes, as well as drains into the common sewer, which was discharged into the Tiber, and the whole was under the control and management of proper officers."

There appear to be but few engaged in the management of our public affairs, to whom this picture of municipal excellence would apply; but its truth may be understood, from the fact, that after the lapse of three thousand years, these works still stand, though subjected to daily use.

The people of the city of New York, stimulated by the cry that municipal reform was needed, have borne into power a new set of men, and we are yet to see whether they have raised those into office who are above all petty intrigues for place, and patronage, and who come up to the dignity which appertained to the Roman legislators.

Perhaps no city in Europe, in the steadiness of its legislation, and the intelligence with which it is directed, equals the excellence of London, where all her works are solid and durable, as well her houses and docks, as her sewers. Boston comes nearer to that standard than any of our cities, where the qualities of which we have spoken, direct her municipal affairs.

In both cities, an extensive system of sewerage prevails, though limited in its uses in Boston, owing to the want of a sufficient supply of water—a want soon to be remedied by her inhabitants.

It would seem to be almost presumptuous, in any one, however enlightened and scientific, to doubt the value of the experience, or the wisdom of the practices pursued by two such cities, in the one case for half a century,* and in the other for nearly a quarter; and in both, persisted in with an energy, which shows that the best minds are satisfied with its efficiency and necessity; but yet, in the city of New York, there are those who shake their heads as gravely when this subject is spoken of, as though (to use the language of Mr. Webster,) they could shake something out of them, to show that the plan was erroneous.

* The sewers in London were commenced in the time of Henry the VIII. They were devoted to the purposes for which they are now used, in 1804.

In London, the sewers are used, not only for the discharge of the water brought in by private companies, but also for the removal of the offensive matter which is formed in the city, and in some instances for the sweepings of the streets. In Boston, they are used for liquids, and for comminuted solids, the want of water compelling them to more care than is observed or required in London. Boston is about to bring in the water from Long Pond, to enable her, among other things, to extend and improve her system of sewerage.

New York, in her arrangements for the introduction of water, far excels any other city in the world. Not only has she provided abundantly for the present wants, but also for the future growth of the city. There she stops short in her enterprise, with the plan but half completed. Had the commissioners been contriving a way to bring serious hurt upon the community, in its property and health, they could not better have accomplished it, than by pouring a large stream into the earth, without devising the means for hastening its progress to its proper destination; but such was not their intention, it being fair to infer from their reports on the subject, that some provision, in that respect, was expected to follow the introduction of the water.

The injuries to property are now occurring; those to health are to follow in their train. People are now discussing the question whether or not they shall fill up their vaults and cellars above the present water level—a level, higher to-day than it was yesterday, and all the time rising; and others are considering whether it is expedient to take the water into their houses until sewers are constructed, the owners taking the ground which Mr. Quick testifies to as being taken in London, that without a proper means of discharge, it will be an injury to take it into the houses. Mr. Hawkesby states that "a good supply of water will be of little value without an efficient drainage, and that the use of the water, however liberally supplied, will be limited and restricted by any inconvenience attending its removal."

Those who observed the streets during the last winter, remember what quantities of ice there were, wherever the Croton was discharged, rendering the travel dangerous, and the occurrence of a sudden storm of rain falling on the surface, elevated by the ice, the certain cause of overflow into the areas. When the high bridge is built, this difficulty will be greatly increased, for then the supply of water will be immensely increased.

In every way does this operate injuriously to the city, which loses in expense for clearing away the frozen streets, and in the want of customers for the water, enough, perhaps, to pay the interest on the outlay for sewers, even if she constructed them at her own expense, which is not in any quarter urged, and is not expected. The owners are quite willing to do this, when the matter shall have been arranged by the corporation on a proper plan.

It never can be that New York will submit to such a state of things, as a final and complete arrangement; it can only be tolerated in that shape, as an evil requiring time for its removal; but the citizens expect that the proceedings, to that end, will be commenced, and commenced soon enough to show that whatever of energy can be devoted reasonably to the subject, will be employed.

Taking it for granted that sewers must be constructed either at the expense of the city, or of the individual owners, the question is, on what

terms, and how rapidly the latter will proceed with the enterprise, and save the city the necessity of engaging in it, in its corporate capacity, with its train of evils, public patronage, a public debt, and greater cost than individual owners would need to endure.

The question is easily answered. Compensate the owners for the outlay, by devoting the sewers to the purposes for which they are used in London and Boston, with fewer advantages than we possess, purposes which in New York are now unlawful, and made the subject of penalties, and they will very soon and very cheerfully go on with the work.

No public matter was ever started, except the one for the introduction of the water, which so entirely has the approval of the great body of property owners, as the one in question. It has been well canvassed, and is well understood; and the prejudice which seemed to pervade many minds against the change, at the first blush, has been entirely overcome; they are not only willing but anxious for the adoption of the London system.

It is undoubtedly too much to say, that all are convinced; some who have not examined the subject, have yet decided against it; others object for reasons that must be deemed without weight; one is, that it will injure the fish market!! another, that the earth, at New York, is of higher temperature than at London, at the required depth for sewers, and that it tends to promote more rapid decomposition, as if the objection did not apply with ten-fold force to the present system; another, that the tides do not rise and fall as much as at London, as if it were possible to use the tide waters for cleansing, where the ground was high, and the grade good, or ever, except for defects, not existing in New York; another, that our present sewers will not answer, because the bottoms are laid in loose sand, as if it were out of the reach of human skill to spread a coat of cement over them; another, that some of the French sewers have become choked, as if it were possible to use them without water, which the French have not, but are about to introduce. The minds of not a few are so constituted, that it would take years to satisfy them that any thing indelicate, offensive or unhealthy, belongs to our present habit of constructing and using a small but conspicuous building, (not "perched upon a hill always," but always exposed to view,) in a way to shock those of delicate minds.

Underneath those structures accumulates the material which induced the Rev. J. Clay, in his report to Parliament, to describe them as "reservoirs of contagion." Read to them from the report to the queen from the duke of Buccleuch, and the able committee, of which he was chairman, what they so impressively state in regard to the effect of our plan upon the public health, and it makes no impression on their understandings. What that committee states, cannot too often be repeated, or too deliberately weighed.

"The medical witnesses," (say they,) "have brought before us facts in support of their strongly urged and unanimous opinion, that no population can be healthy, which lives amid cis-pools, or upon a soil permeated by decomposing animal or vegetable refuse, giving off impurities to the air in their houses and in the streets. They state the necessity of preventing all accumulations of stagnant refuse in or near houses, and of substituting a system of house-drainage and cleansing, aided by the introduction of better supplies of water into the houses."

We all know the mode by which, in England, their executive and legislative establishments proceed to ascertain the steps proper to be taken in

regard to any given subject, to remedy any existing evil. A commission is appointed by them, sometimes formed from the Parliament, and sometimes from the community at large, to take the testimony of skilful persons in regard to the particular subject, and report it, with a general view of the whole matter, to the body whence the commission emanated.

A large amount of useful and accurate information is thus collected from expert citizens; and when the matter comes to be legislated upon, it is all scrutinized carefully, and the laws have impressed upon them, not only the intelligence of the law giver, but the assent, in advance, of the best wisdom of the community. They may then be written "with a pen of iron upon tablets of marble."

Information so precise, and ample, on the subjects thus investigated, is not to be obtained in any quarter, so well as from these reports; and we may appeal to them, with a certainty which ought to overbear and put to shame, every opinion formed without the same lights, and on the strength of a prejudice, resulting from different habits. The committee which investigated this subject was composed of eminent men, who, during the year 1843 and part of 1844, patiently investigated the subjects committed to them, the drainage being the chief, and made a report to the queen, who presented it to both houses of Parliament. This report, with the documents appended, occupies about 700 printed folio pages, and gives, not only general views, but all the detail necessary to enable persons to form accurate opinions on the whole matter.

The general object of inquiry, so far as it related to the sewerage, was the improvement of defects in parts of London, and the establishment of the system, wherever practicable, throughout England and Wales.

The leading fact deducible from the whole investigation is this: that flowing water is the essential element to the perfection of a good system of sewerage, and that without it in sufficient abundance to cleanse and purify drains devoted to the discharge of the refuse, they are more offensive than useful. "The drains furnish the ways or vehicles for transportation, the water is the moving power or carrier," is the language of one of the royal engineers to the committee. "It is indisputable," (says Mr. Mylne, engineer on the French works,) "that water is the best and cheapest means of removing all decomposing matter."

Where flowing water exists in sufficient abundance, the descent in the sewers is not required to be so great as with a diminished supply. Mr. Hosking, professor of architecture of Kings College, thus testifies on this point. "I have found, from experience, that sewers moderately well supplied with backwater, may be made with much less fall than is generally considered necessary, and less than this bill requires," (2 1-2 inches per 100 feet.) "I myself directed the diversion of one of the large sewers at the western extremity of London, the Counters Creek sewer, for a mile and a half of its length; and for the purpose of obtaining deeper drainage at the upper end, I prevailed upon the commissioners to allow the fall to be at the slight rate of 1.63 inch—less than 1 3-4 inch in 100 feet, throughout the diverted length, the sewer being the course of a small stream, the drainage of the uplands. With this small stream, the sewer, with its slight fall, is kept perfectly clean; no accumulations of any kind take place in it; and I think I may assume, therefore, that a fall of 2 inches in 100 feet, with a good back water, at frequent intervals, would be sufficient."

Indeed, upon a perfect level, by collecting the ordinary flow in the sewers, by means of gates, until a sufficient head is obtained, the drains may be kept perfectly clean by the rush, the operation being called "flushing." "We have a sewer building on a dead level, (says Mr. Roe, one of the commissioners of sewers,) in consequence of the difficulty of the outlet, in that case we have placed a gate for 1,600 feet, and we are in hopes we shall do with a greater distance than that hereafter; but that is the greatest length we have had an opportunity of working in a horizontal direction." He also states: "We have found the system of flushing effectual on a horizontal line." The experiments presently to be given, will be conclusive as to the efficacy of this system. If we have not water enough to keep the drains free of matter undergoing decomposition, the plan ought not to be persisted in for a moment, certainly not beyond the steps necessary for an experiment, which can do no hurt, and may settle all conflicting opinions, there being none to desire the adoption of the London system, except for the benefits to be conferred by its success.

The great question, then is, whether in New York the water is to be had in sufficient abundance for the purpose.

The city of London, with a population of 2,000,000, has a daily supply from the various water companies, of 28,774 gallons per diem, which, for 177,000 houses, gives 162 gallons per diem to each house, and this, in addition to the rain water, constitutes the chief reliance of the city for cleansing the sewers. The tidal waters of the Thames are used for the sewers built where the ground is low enough to admit the tide, and the descent inadequate, but they are not, and cannot be used except where these defects exist.

The population of New York is 350,000, and she has 38,000 houses. New York, at the rate of the London supply, would require for her 38,000 houses, only 6,156,000 gallons daily.

Her aqueduct is constructed to bring down from the Croton the enormous quantity of 60,000,000 gallons daily, or over 1,578 gallons to each house per diem, being an excess of 1,416 gallons, for each house, every day over the London supply.

The capacity of the Croton to supply this quantity, except during the dry season of the year, is undoubted, and during that season it may be obtained, by using, in addition to the ordinary flow of the river, in the time of the greatest drought, the quantity stored in the dam, amounting to 496,000,000 gallons, and resorting to ponds in the vicinity, the water in which may be stored in reservoirs, and introduced at very little expense.

The minimum supply, however, without resorting to the ponds, is altogether sufficient for all purposes; that, during September and October, (the months when the Croton is lowest,) is 35,000,000 gallons daily, the dam supplying 8,000,000 of that quantity.

Major Douglass, the engineer who made the preliminary surveys, states that "it was on the 5th of September that I guaged the Croton at Wood's bridge, and it was then discharging at the rate of 51,522,480 gallons per diem; to which, if we add 3,628,800 discharged from the Muscoot, and reduce the aggregate in the ratio of one-fifth, to meet extremes of drought, like that of 1816, we have still remaining a regular running supply of 44,120,924 gallons per diem, without resorting to the 20,000,000 daily obtainable from reservoirs."* When the guage was taken, there

* This was exclusive of the water to be obtained from the main dam.

had not been, at that time, an entire rainy day for sixty-two days, and the testimony of witnesses was, that the streams were "very low," "seldom lower," and according to some, "never."

For the purposes of great caution, a smaller quantity was assumed by Mr. Jervis as the minimum, and yet so enormous is it, that it furnishes 921 gallons per day to each house in the city. This quantity furnishes over 29 hogsheads for each 25 feet of sewer, 14 1-2 to come from each of the two opposite dwellings on any given street, enough to fill up that length of sewer, when built of the proper size, from four to six times per day, a quantity exceeding far any supply, for that purpose, known of in the world.

Not less liberal are the arrangements in New York for receiving and distributing the water. The receiving reservoir, at eighty-fourth street, holds 150,000,000 gallons, the distributing reservoir, 21,000,000. The water flowing in was shut off last year for fourteen days, and was diminished but one-fifth.

The mean annual rain at New York is 36 inches; at London, with lighter, but more frequent rains, only 32 inches. Upon a well constructed plan of sewerage, both the Croton, and the rain water, would be used for the sewers, the former, after it had performed its domestic uses, the latter, either from cisterns, (if any need for storing it existed,) or as it fell, care being taken to provide against any overflow in the sewers.

The obvious remark to be made upon this statement, as to the water, is, that unless there is something peculiarly bad about the grade of our city, we are so much better off than London, in relation to the supply, that her citizens would hesitate not a moment about devoting the sewers to the purposes we have mentioned.

In relation to the grade of New York, and its position, so far from being inferior to that of London, we have advantages nearly as great and controlling as those founded on our superior supply of water.

All the sewers of London must descend from the outskirts of the city towards the Thames, which washes but one side of London; the sewers thus lose the benefit of the sharp descent at the river side, which, from the necessity of deep cuttings through it, becomes an inconvenience. Some of the cuttings are 32 feet, requiring during the work a massive frame work to shore up the houses. A noble stream runs on either side of New York, and the sewers may run from the central elevation, into both rivers at a regular depth. This advantage is immense. In London, the sewers must necessarily be long, and many of them crooked, and have innumerable collateral drains, while in New York, they may generally be straight and short. It should be deemed a cardinal point to have them as free as possible of each other, a principle departed from most unnecessarily in connection with the sixth and third avenue sewers.

The offensive substances are discharged at London into fresh water, which becomes contaminated; in New York, into salt, which disinfects; one is distant from the sea, the other nearly adjoins it. The tide falls in the Thames so as to expose the bottom extensively, upon which the sewers discharge, rendering the air offensive; at New York, the bottom of the rivers is never disclosed. It is difficult to keep the tide out of the London sewers; in New York it will be otherwise, but requisite; and, above all, the London sewers can only be ventilated at one end; ours may be connected in the centre, and left open at both rivers, for the sweep of a current of air, and with enough water, be kept free of offensive odors.

Before the extensive introduction of water into London, and the change from the flat bottom to the eliptical shape for sewers, opinions prevailed in regard to the required descent, that have since been entirely abandoned. The old regulations required a descent of one inch and a quarter in every ten feet, where they carried off solid matter. These have been changed, and in the Westminster Commission, the rules now prescribe "that the current of all sewers to be built, be regulated by the commissioners, according to the surface to be drained." In the Holborn and Finsbury, the largest district, the regulations provide that the inclination "be not less than one-quarter of an inch to every ten feet in length, and as much more as circumstances will admit in those portions that are in a straight line; and double that fall in portions that are curved." These restrictions, although of comparatively recent date, it is found, may be departed from, and they are.

The surveyor of the Westminster district is asked, "What is the minimum fall you require?" "There are some of our main sewers with only half an inch to one hundred feet, others $2\frac{1}{2}$ to one hundred feet; some less than that, but that is the exception, not the rule." The commissioner of the Holborn and Finsbury district states that "there are places where they cannot get a quarter of an inch in ten feet," and that they even build them on a dead level, as we have before shown. Much of London is built upon ground formerly a swamp, from which the tides are excluded by an embankment that gave way last fall, owing to the power of a freshet, causing much injury to property. The tides are excluded from the sewers there, by heavy flaps at the mouth. The pavement of many of the streets is lower than the water at high tide.

In New York, we have no ground of that character—none not considerably above the highest tide—and very little with a descent so small as the minimum grade prescribed by the Holborn and Finsbury rules. Stuyvesant meadows and Canal street furnish the lowest grades in New York; but with good sewers no difficulty would be experienced, even in those quarters.

For a long time, it was the rule in New York, to lay out the streets at a descent not under ten inches in every hundred feet, and many of the streets have that descent. From Union Square the fall is eight and two-tenths inches per hundred feet; from the Park it is still greater, the distance being less to the river. The elevation of Union Square is forty-two feet above high-water mark, that of the Park thirty-eight.

The superiority over London, in respect to the grade and general shape and position of the city, as well as the abundance of water, is therefore indisputable. From our highest elevations, the Croton would come down with immense power and velocity.

The power of running water, at various velocities, is thus given by Professor Robinson, in his treatise on Rivers:—

That a velocity, at the bottom of a stream,

of 3	inches	per	second,	will	separate and lift up	particles of fine clay.
6	"	"	"	"	"	fine sand.
8	"	"	"	"	"	coarse sand.
12	"	"	will sweep along and lift up			particles of fine gravel.
24	"	"	"	"		gravel 1 inch in diameter.
36	"	"	"	"		angular stone the size of an egg.

The Croton is brought into New York at a descent of one foot and one inch per mile, for most of the distance, and at less than one foot for part of it; and yet, with this slight descent, has a velocity of about 100 feet* per minute, or 20 inches per second, which, according to the table of Professor Robinson, would be nearly enough to "sweep along and lift up gravel one inch in diameter."

The velocity of water running in an aqueduct is increased by the quantity and descent, and is retarded by the amount of substances in it, held in suspension; and so its velocity in sewers cannot be determined from that of the Croton in the aqueduct, without having particulars not yet to be obtained.

The descent at Canal street, on the surface, exceeds that of the Croton aqueduct, at the rate of 13 feet and 8 inches per mile; and from Union Square the excess is about forty feet per mile, enough, with a well constructed sewer, and a sufficiency of water, to sweep away the heaviest impurities.

"What is the rate of fall (Mr. Kelsey is asked by the London Commission) upon the sewer upon which you have spoken?"

A. "It varies: some parts are about half an inch to ten feet."

Q. "You consider that rate of fall a good fall?"

A. "Yes: the water runs from Margate street at such a rate that I cannot stand against it. It all depends upon the quantity of water. The same fall with a small quantity will be sluggish, when a large quantity of water makes a torrent of it."†

Mr. Beck, Surveyor of Water Commissioners, is asked before the same Commission,—

"Are your drains made on a particular fall?" and answers, "Where I could get the fall, I like it about 1-4 of an inch to ten feet, (the precise fall of the 6th Avenue sewer.) I think that is desirable, but there are sewers where we have only the 1-8 of an inch fall."

Q. "Have you found they keep themselves clear?"

A. "Yes, they act exceedingly well."

Q. "Is that the least fall you have known?"

A. "No: I have put a drain on a dead level; that will not act quite so well, but the others do very well."

Q. "For whom did you put in that drain?"

A. "I put in a sewer for Mr. DeBauvoir, 3,000 feet long, on a dead level, which I was obliged to do, from being unable to obtain a fall."

Q. "Do you find that sewer keeps clean?"

A. "That sewer has been built 10 years, and it has never been cleaned."

Q. "Is it subjected to any flow of water from any manufactory?"

A. "No: it is from Hoxton new town, or DeBauvoir town."

Q. "Does it receive any flow of water from the tide?"

A. "No."

Q. "Is there much discharge from the mouth of it?"

A. "It discharges into another sewer, in Kingsland road, belonging to the Holborn and Finsbury division."

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* Mr. Douglass' Report, page 404.

† The owner of the building at the corner of Carmine and Varick streets informed me that the current in the "Sixth Avenue Sewer," in front of his premises, was such that it would carry a paving stone to the river—its descent is 2½ inches to 100 feet.

Q. "Is there a considerable fall in the sewer into which that empties?"
A. "No: that is nearly a dead level, also."

One of the most intelligent of the witnesses examined on the Commission is Mr. John Roe, for a long time a Commissioner of Sewers, and the originator of most of the improvements in their shape, and the mode of cleansing. He is asked:—

"What is the general fall in your sewers? what do you consider a fair fall?" and he answers, "I find in the regulation of the Commissioners, a fall of a quarter of an inch, in ten feet, is required as the least fall; but we give them as much fall as we can. There are places where we cannot get a quarter of an inch in ten feet."

Q. "In that case, do you find flushing effectual in a horizontal line?"
A. "Yes."

Some experiments in flushing are given by him as follows:—

"Head of water 18 1-2 inches; quantity 45 hogsheads; cleared away 1 1-2 inch of deposit from 300 feet of sewer, part of the bottom on a dead level."

"Head of water 10 inches; quantity 20 hogsheads; deposit heavy; flush cleared away 1¼ inches from 330 feet of sewer."

"Head two feet; deposit in sewer composed of small pieces of brick, stones as large as walnuts, oyster shells, decomposed animal and vegetable matter; proportion of matter carried away 1 to 16 of water."

"Head two feet; deposit in sewer composed of soft mud, and all descriptions of filth, and a little silt; proportion of matter 1 to 6 1-2 of water. This was conveyed 2,400 feet."

Where the streets, such as 14th street, extend from river to river, the number of houses required to fill up the lots, is about seven hundred, one half of which, say 350, would fall on the east side of Broadway, and one half on the west, and each half would be accommodated with a sewer extending in different directions. One hundred and seventy-five of those houses on each side of any particular street, making 350, would have 5,775 feet of sewer, (taking the width of avenues into view,) requiring to be cleansed, for which their share of the Croton, per diem, would be 5,075 hogsheads, or nearly one hogshead to every foot of sewer.

We have, therefore, a much larger supply of water than London, and not only an abundant, but a liberal supply—a far better grade—immense advantages in position over her, and are without her disadvantages, which are numerous; and London hesitates not a moment about extending the plan with all possible rapidity, and refers to it, as that which exempts the city from disease—which bestows immeasurable comforts on the people—and produces the cleanliness that justified the boast of one of her citizens, that when New York left off cleaning the city, it was dirtier than when London, at any season, began.

In the message of the Mayor, the advantages enjoyed by us over London, are grouped together forcibly; and in presenting the matter to the Common Council, he has exhibited the foresight which justly appertains to his position. If the two points be established, that the grade is good, and the water abundant—controlling points always—the feasibility of the plan indicated is unquestionable, and the question arises, whether the advantages of the system warrant a resort to it?

The sewers must be constructed for the water drainage, at all events; in that is involved all the expense that would be required if the two

objects, the discharge of the water and the removal of the refuse, were united.

We have already the water power, which is the moving power, and the cheapest that can be applied. No expense is to be incurred for that. The question then is, whether, having the power, and needing the sewers for other purposes, we shall, when they are constructed, use them to carry off the refuse in whole or in part, and construct them with that view.

Capt. Veitch, whose testimony we have before referred to, thus forcibly presents this matter to the London Commission:—

"The supply of water in towns flowing from an elevated reservoir into main pipes, and from these spreading by branches through the streets, and finally distributed by service pipes to each dwelling, is just such an arrangement as would be most useful to cleansing away refuse into the sewers, if required for no other purpose; but the beauty of the union of the two subjects, is that the water upon such a system, after supplying all the domestic wants of man, is equally fit for cleansing away dirt and refuse, and at the moment it is dispensed for household purposes, it begins again to collect in the house drains, carrying all the house filth with it; the contents of the house drains unite in the street sewer, and gain force for greater scourage, by accessions from the street gutters."

It would seem not to require argument to show that the city would overlook an important duty, did it not unite the plan of removing the refuse with that of the water-drainage, when the union is to cost nothing.

"The supply of water to a town, and the discharge of the refuse, are two branches of the same subject," is the language of Capt. Veitch, to the Commission, and he expresses what ought to be apparent to every mind.

Instead of resulting in expense, it will accomplish a large saving; not of money merely, but—if we believe the medical witnesses of London—a saving of human life.

No other mode can be devised which will dispense with those "reservoirs of contagion," amounting, in New York, to over thirty-eight thousand—none other for dispensing with the disgusting labors of the *vidangeurs*, who poison the air nightly with the load of impurities which they carry to the docks, and charge the community for the work.

Did the whole matter rest on the advantage gained in these respects, it would justify the city in uniting the two branches. Let the community reflect a little on these matters. Take the case of the City Hospital, as one among innumerable public buildings in the city. The managers have built, with much care, a cess-pool on their grounds, which lie in the centre of population,—and built it after an application for permission to make or use a sewer, was made to the last Common Council, but neglected in that body. The excretion from two or three hundred sick persons, gathers in the cess-pool daily, and there remains. If it were sent off by a sewer, it would reach, before decomposition, a good disinfecting agent, the salt water: but instead of that, the gases from it escape from day to day, and mingle with the air we breathe! And yet the same thing exists with all our public buildings, our schools, hotels, and places where people congregate in numbers, engaged in some industry, and to a less serious extent, with all our dwellings. Is it not a great point, on the score of delicacy and health, to get rid of these nuisances and their poisonous exhalations?

"The principal gas given out from these deposits, (says Dr. Duncan in

his report to Parliament;) is sulphuretted hydrogen, the most deadly of the gaseous poisons, two or three cubic inches causing instant death when injected into a vein, or into the chest, or beneath the skin of animals. Nine quarts injected into the intestines of a horse, as a common clyster, killed it in a minute; and I have heard it stated, that it is difficult to keep horses in high condition in the neighborhood of large privies, where sulphuretted hydrogen is abundantly given out. Even when largely diluted with atmospheric air, it retains, in a great degree, its noxious properties. A dog was killed by being made to breathe one part of this gas with eight hundred parts of common air, and air containing only 1-1500th of sulphuretted hydrogen, proves speedily fatal to small birds. It is not a great many years since four men fell victims to the poison while engaged in cleaning out a privy near Brompton; and still more recently an accident of a similar nature happened at Clapham. Twenty-three children belonging to a boarding school at that place, were simultaneously attacked with violent irritation of the stomach and bowels, convulsive twitching of the muscles, and excessive prostration of strength, and two of them died in twenty-four hours. The symptoms were ascribed by the medical attendants, to the inhalation of sulphuretted hydrogen from the contents of a foul cess-pit, which had been scattered over a garden adjoining the children's play-ground."

The London report is filled with evidence of a similar kind, and hence Mr. Hawksley's testimony—"I take it for granted, that it is now conceded by every one, that cess-pools and privy-pits are not less detrimental to the health, than unpleasant to the senses, and that there cannot be a very healthy population living in the vicinity of such receptacles." And hence also, Dr. T. Southwood Smith's—"I take it for granted, that the overwhelming evidence which has been adduced to show how much the health, and even the life of the community depends on this [the drainage embracing the removal of the refuse] has entered into the legislative mind, as it has into the public mind."

As to the labors of the *vidangeurs*, it is deemed sufficient to refer to the testimony of M. Mylne, the Parisian engineer.

Q. "If you had been enabled to carry the water into the houses in Paris, [he is now engaged in that work,] would it have led to the general application of the water-closet system, as a means of cleansing?"

A. "Decidedly so: the houses were already prepared for the introduction of the system, and it was much wished for by the inhabitants; and sewers were then being constructed in all parts of the city."

Q. "Then the completion of the system, or the joining on of the system of cleansing with the system of supplying water by machinery, would have led to the supercession of the labor of the body of *vidangeurs*, or scavengers, as well as of the labor of the *porteurs d'eau?*"

A. "Decidedly; it would not only have superseded the labors of the *vidangeurs*, but the nuisance of their labors, which every one who has passed the streets of Paris at the night will be well aware of;—nothing improves the habits so much, nothing civilizes a population so much, as improvements in the mode of removing the excretal."

The plan offered for adoption is free of these unpleasant features, and offers no offence to the most delicate mind. It is cleanly, healthful and economical, and accomplishes the improvement which M. Mylne so well describes.

But there are other advantages of an essential character, to result from the union which has been recommended.

Few more important services can be rendered to a community constituted as ours is, than to lighten materially the household labors; such a benefit reaches to all classes of our citizens—the rich, in adding to their comforts; the middle classes, in making them independent, in some degree, of the domestics; and the poor, in enabling them to do the work of their household with greater convenience. It has been said, that the introduction of the Croton into our dwellings has greatly diminished domestic labors. To provide the means for its removal, along with such offensive material as is formed in the houses and kitchens, will be equally important, and a great blessing, (remedying as it will the unpleasant and exposing part of household duties,) and the legislator who secures this to the people, ought to be deemed as much a public benefactor, as he who diminishes the weight of heavy taxation, or so helps the productive powers of a community, that, with the same amount of labor, they may procure additional comforts.

The liberation of no inconsiderable quantity of land in our yards—as well those of stores as of dwellings—now devoted to outhouses, is a matter of no little consequence, in view of its use for other purposes. Indeed, in many places, the saving in this respect will much more than pay for any possible expense for constructing the sewers, which cannot exceed twenty-five or thirty dollars per lot—a sum too small, in view of the advantages we have named, to be much considered.

It would be easy to press into use a great variety of advantages to follow the adoption of this measure, but our readers will themselves, many of them, in the course of their reflections, fall upon them quite easily, and it will be useless to anticipate their movements in that regard. It will also be unnecessary to go into the particulars of the size, depth, ventilation, and mode of piercing the sewers, as this concerns a more advanced stage of the question; suffice it to say, that in London these matters have been arranged with great precision, and very satisfactorily.

It is a subject full of interest to the citizen, and when those who have not fully considered it bring their minds to act upon it, there will be but little hesitation in forming the true judgment, and still less in demanding from the Common Council the fulfilment of their wishes.

It is too large a subject to be trifled with, too important to be postponed; disease will soon lay its hand upon the city, to the loss of that reputation for health which now constitutes an element—an important element—in the value of its property, the extent of its business, and its general prosperity.

If we have not committed our interests into the hands of Lilliputians—who can for a time bind them down, acting on their small conceits and trifling prejudices—we shall presently have this matter placed on its true footing, and large, well considered and manly views will prevail.

New York, by her position and rank, is entitled to insist that her municipal legislators shall come up to the point of excellence which is required to maintain her great character; and we trust, confidently, that experience will show they have the loftiness which befits them for the task.

ART. IV.—RAILROAD IRON AND THE TARIFF.

AT a meeting held at the rooms of the American Institute, in the city of New York, (March, 1844,) the subject proposed for discussion was—"Can America supply her iron, or is she so situated by nature, that she must send 3,000 miles and procure it from the mines of England, or still further, from the mines of Russia? An inquiry into the items of some of the debts of the western states, probably show that they have bought of the English traders, railroad iron at from $65 to $75 per ton, and for carrying it into the interior, paid from $20 to $25 per ton more, which, at this time is offered by the same English traders at $23 75 per ton. Might not this railroad iron as well have been made on our western waters, at about $20 per ton, with but little cost of transportation, and no repudiation?" This question being under discussion, it was earnestly contended by the president and many members of the institute, that the present extravagant duty of $25 should be maintained, and that no reduction should be countenanced, and that even prohibition of foreign railroad iron, to encourage our own iron master, was the sound policy of the government. In this discussion, the writer maintained, that unless there was some reduction, the present duty would retard, if not paralyze a number of important works that had been commenced, on the faith that they could import their iron, as many of the neighboring works had done, free of duty, with such facilities of credit in their purchase, on adequate security, as could only be procured from the rich iron master of Wales, who, at low rates of interest, 2 to 3 per cent, had invested large sums in costly machinery, to make the iron rails of Great Britain.

In the place of the extravagant tariff of $25 per ton, the question to be asked should be, is it not the duty of the United States government, to legislate "for the greatest good of the greatest number." I also contended, that the government should encourage railways.

1st. To connect, and bind together the Union.

2d. As avenues for defence, and for internal commerce.

3d. To transport the mails, at cheap rates, from one end of this wide and extending republic to the other, and thereby continue the post-office department.

Now, if this view is correct, are not railways of more consequence to foster, than the interest of the iron master in the least profitable part of his business, by the imposition of a duty of $25 per ton, or about 100 per cent on the cost of railroad iron, for the manufacture of which, in quantities, and of the various forms of edge rail, we are not prepared, with machinery, nor with the large amount of capital required to construct suitable works.

To sustain the foregoing, I will endeavor to give a few of the reasons that should induce the iron master not to claim any protection on the importation of the substantial edge rail, and certainly at no rate to exceed the duty on scrap iron, ($10 per ton.)

First. I will admit that we can make railroad iron, but that it is not for the interest of the whole people. The American iron master, situated far in the interior, requires railways to the mines of coal and iron, to bring them together. Railways to him are as important to reach the main market, on the seaboard, as the water power and roller, to fashion the iron for the wants of the artizan.

We require the immediate construction of at least 2,500 miles of railway, to and over the Alleghany mountains, and through regions where there are no navigable streams, in proximity to the coal and iron. The mines are generally situated high above tide water, on the eastern and western slopes, inaccessible to cheap transportation, except by railways.

It is calculated that the several lines of railways completed and in use in the United States, some with a double, but a majority with single tracks, having the flat bar, that should be replaced with the edge rail, number 4,000 miles, or say equal to 5,000 miles of single track. They have cost, to include grading, superstructure, iron rails, and motive power, above $125,000,000. Of this sum, about $26,000,000 has been expended for iron imported from England. In order to render these several lines of railways useful to the government, to cement the Union, for defence, and for the rapid transmission of the mails, it is necessary to construct, without delay, at least 2,500 miles, and three times this number, to complete our system.

If these railways are constructed, as they should be, with the heavy ⌶ or T iron rail, instead of the flat bar, or "snake head," the number of tons of iron required during the next ensuing six years, will not fall short of 250,000 tons, exclusive of the large quantity necessary for the construction of locomotives, sheet iron cars, spikes, springs, &c., the manufacture and demand for which, is created by the construction of railways.

Under this view, I would ask if it is possible to procure capital to construct furnaces, forges, rollers, &c., to supply this quantity of iron, as fast as it may be wanted? The estimate is certainly a small one, as double this quantity should be required, to re-lay the roads, now using the condemned flat bar. During the next six years, the seaboard, or main base line of all our railways, should be extended from Maine to New Orleans, with branches through the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia and Tennessee, to St. Louis—all so important to connect the agricultural and manufacturing interests of the western with the Atlantic states.

By many it is contended, and with much plausibility, from the nationality of the object, that the general government shall have an interest in, and to a reasonable extent, (for government purposes,) control the state railroad incorporations. No law of Congress can reach this subject, except in the district of Columbia, and by the consent of the states. It is contended by some, that while these several companies are weak, and overwhelmed with debt, as they generally are, that Congress should aid them by some general law, with a bonus of say to the extent of $2,000 to $3,000 per mile—conditioned that the post-office, war and navy departments, can use them, at fair, and prefered rates. Others propose, that on all main lines, completed, or others that can give security for the same, the post-office department alone, could afford to allow the interest of $5,000 per annum. This rate, $300, is not half what the British government now pay their main lines, to transmit her penny letters, with the ounce of matter from one end of the kingdom to the other.

Second. I contend it is not for the interest of the iron master in this country, to roll the edge rail, in its various expensive forms, because, all the capital he can procure is required, and will be, for many years, to construct works to supply the demand for iron in more saleable forms. It is not generally known, that the requisite machinery to roll the edge rail,

60 pounds to the yard, and 18 feet long, is very expensive. It requires four or five times the capital for rollers, and for water power, that is necessary to produce round bar and sheet iron, of the usual saleable sizes and forms.

There is another consideration, that will prevent our iron master from embarking much capital in the manufacture of railroad iron. It is the uncertainty of demand, and of course, its price. The demand will vary, from the difficulty that exists to procure capital, to prosecute railways of acknowledged importance; works believed to be highly profitable in their direct and incidental benefits. In the city of New York, the Erie railroad, the Elizabethport and Somerville, and the New York and Albany railroads, all leading to, or through iron districts; the Erie and Somerville leads to inexhaustible quantities of both iron and coal, in immediate proximity; the New York and Albany, to the best American and Salsbury iron. These, and other railways, are necessary to the iron master, and to develope our resources, even if the rails are borrowed from England, imported duty free, and their cost paid for out of the earnings of these roads, carrying our iron from the interior to the artizan, at cheap rates, and not at $20 to $25 per ton, as stated by the American Institute, by the present conveyance, to reach to the western states. This rate of freight, even without a duty of $25 per ton, rates amply adequate to protect the western iron master, for western railroads, if for their interest to manufacture railroad iron. But for the facilities granted to the Philadelphia and Reading railroad company, (to import their iron free of duty, and on a liberal and extended credit,) the Pennsylvania iron master would not have had this iron avenue—open at all seasons—to regulate the high price of freight, charged prior to its construction, by the Schuylkill canal, to get his iron to market.

Among the many articles manufactured in this country from iron, created by the construction of railways, as stated, are locomotives and sheet iron cars, made entirely of iron, conveying five tons, and costing less than the wooden car. This improvement in cars, with that of the engines of 16 1-2 tons, all drivers, has reduced to a certainty the superiority of a railway over a canal, situated as the Philadelphia and Reading railroad, with a level or descending grade. This road, to commence its business, has already about 50 locomotives, and 2,500 cars, that have cost, with tools for the workshops, at least $900,000. Before three years have elapsed, this company will require double the motive power now employed, to supply the increasing demand for hard coal.

The Philadelphia and Reading railway was projected as much to benefit the iron master, as to regulate the price of coal, to the steam cotton mills, and to the artizans on the Schuylkill and in Philadelphia. This it has effectually done, and to the estimated value of at least $1,500,000 per annum. This railway, therefore, has been the poor man's friend, as well as the manufacturers, in situations that can only be approached by "this better improvement of the age." Viewing it in this light, it comes with an ill grace from the iron master of Pennsylvania, on the Columbia and Pottsville railroad, to contend that his neighbor of the Lehigh, or other avenues to market, must buy their iron for railways of them, cash in hand, protected with $25 duty, when it should be imported free. Why should the Central Georgia railroad, and other railroads leading into the rich iron and coal regions of Tennessee, Missouri, and other states, be pre-

vented from importing their railroad iron, with every facility to pay for it, merely to build up the favored iron masters of Pennsylvania and of Maryland, who have been so fortunate as to get from abroad, duty free, their iron rails, up to their limited works, by creating debts that in some cases they do not pay the interest on?

The Emperor of all the Russias, with coal and iron in abundance, considers it sound policy to send his gold collected on the Ural mountains, to buy the cheap railroad iron rolled in Wales, to improve his avenues for commerce, and means for offence and defence. France, we believe, now imports her railroad iron, and mainly, her locomotives. The government do not build, or manage railways. Louis Philippe, after getting Paris fortified, has, with his Chambers, agreed upon a general law, in aid of private incorporations, in preference to the construction and management of railways by the government; by which they agree to procure and pay for the land, for the right of way, and to grade the same, being generally about five-eighths the cost of railways, on the condition that private incorporations, under liberal charters, are to purchase and place on the road bed the wooden superstructure, iron rails, cars and engines. To these private incorporations, and to foment the construction of railways in every direction from Paris, the government, in a spirit of liberality, allow out of the nett earnings of the road, exclusive of any interest on the advances of the government for the right of way and road bed, a moderate interest, 3 to 4 per cent on the investment of the private corporators, after which, the remaining surplus nett earnings of the road is divided between the government and the corporation in proportion to their several investments. Prior to 1843, France had but 560 miles of roads commenced and completed; now, the finished works, and those actually commenced during the year, number 1,800 miles, and are estimated to cost 850,000,000 of francs; and of this sum, the government are to furnish 500,000,000 of francs. The railroads, all over the kingdom of France, projected to unite the Mediterranean with the Atlantic, and with her several frontier fortifications, and for which charters are granted, are estimated to cost $235,000,000. The governments of Prussia and of Austria, on a number of important works, guarantee to private railroad corporations, an interest varying of from 4 to 5 per cent. Great Britain, with private enterprize alone, unaided by the government, except through the post-office department, where she gets value received, has expended under 43 incorporations, or 1,860 miles of road, £60,000,000, or $300,000,000, Individuals in England and Ireland have projected 2,000 miles of road, and the shares are already taken up, and held above par, in roads that are estimated to cost the further sum of $250,000,000. The government of Belgium, after trying high duties on railroad iron, to force its manufacture, for the 450 miles of railway that have been built and managed by the Belgian government, as military avenues, radiating from Mallines, near Brussels, the centre of the kingdom, has abandoned this policy, and now grants charters to extend and connect the villages with these main avenues for commerce and for defence.

In this view of the great importance of railways, and an interest in them, to control the rapid transmission of the mails by the government, at cheap rates of postage, and thus supercede private enterprise, I look forward with confidence, that the present Congress will not separate without taking off the present duty on railroad iron, or reducing it to $10 or

less; and then, if our iron master must be protected for revenue, let the advance be gradual, after two or three years from this date, as a notice to the present railroad companies, who have commenced their works, to finish them, or be subject thereafter to a protective duty, if required, for revenue. J. E. B.

Art. V.—TREATY OF THE GERMANIC CONFEDERATION.

In the last number of the Merchant's Magazine, an able communication appeared upon the rejection of the Zoll Verien Treaty, or Treaty of the Germanic Confederation, by the Senate of the United States. It was negotiated by Mr. Wheaton, our Minister at the Court of Berlin, whose merits appear to be as highly appreciated in Europe as in this country. As it is probable that, under the new administration, the subject may again be renewed by the free trade party, it is highly important that all the particulars of the treaty should be known, as well as the causes of its rejection. The intelligent body of merchants will have a great influence in the decision of this important question. We propose, therefore, to give the whole treaty, which occupies little space, and the reasons for its rejection. Many of the articles of the treaty are not mentioned, and the principal causes of its rejection not alluded to.

Art. 1. The United States agree not to impose dutles on the importation of the following articles, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the Germanic Confederation of Customs and Commerce, exceeding

I. Twenty per centum ad valorem on the importation of all

1. Woollen, worsted and cotton mitts, caps, bindings, and woollen and worsted and cotton hosiery, that is to say, stockings, drawers, shirts, socks, and all similar articles made in frames.
2. On all musical instruments of every kind except Piano Fortes.

II. Sixteen per centum ad valorem on the importation of

1. All articles manufactured of hemp or flax, or which hemp or flax shall be a component part of chief value, except cotton bagging, or any other manufacture suitable for the uses to which cotton bagging is applied.
2. All manufactures of silk, of which silk shall be the component part of chief value.
3. Thibet, merinos, merino shawls, and all manufactures of combed wool, and worsted or silk combined.
4. Polished plate glass, silvered or not silvered, small pocket looking glasses, from three to four inches long, and from one and a half to six inches broad; toys of every description, snuff-boxes of papier mache, lead pencils, lithographic stones, and wooden clocks, known under the name of Scharzwalder clocks.
5. Cologne water, needles, bronze wares of all kinds, planes, scissors, scythes, files, axes, and fish-hooks, gold, silver, and copper wire, tin foil, and musical strings of all kinds.
6. Leather pocket books and etues, and all sorts of similar fine leather manufactures, known under the name of offuvarkee fine leather fabrics.

III. Ten per centum ad valorem on the importation of

1. All thread laces and insertings, laces galoons, tresses, tassels, knots, stars of gold, fine and half fine.
2. Mineral water, spelter, and hare's-wool, dressed.

In return for this great reduction, it is proposed to charge no duty upon cotton, and not to advance the duty upon rice; to limit the duty upon lard to 137 cents on the centner, a measure of weight equal to 113 pounds, and to reduce the duty upon tobacco about a cent, and upon the stems of tobacco, about one and one-third cent per pound.

In relation to a duty on cotton, and the enhancement of the duty upon rice, the enlightened self-interest of the Germanic Confederation is equal to any pledge she could give us. Cotton is admitted at a nominal duty in every port in Europe. Lard is an article of inconsiderable value. With respect to tobacco, the committee of the Senate, in their report, say, "On a liberal estimate of the addition which might be expected in the consumption of tobacco, from this reduction of duty, in the states of the Zoll Verien, it cannot be counted as extending beyond a few thousand hogsheads—say from five to six thousand hogsheads a year. This estimate is formed on the rate of progression for some years of the export of tobacco from the United States to Germany. The price of tobacco, independently of the reduction which might follow in a diminished rate of duty, is already so moderate, in the Zoll Verien States, that increased consumption, to any considerable extent, can hardly be inferred as the effect of the diminution."

The committee reported, as the principal reason for the rejection of the treaty, that the Congress is the department of the Government by which commerce should be regulated, and laws of revenue passed. By the Constitution, it was limited to that department of the government. Though the Executive, with the consent of the Senate, may indirectly exercise the power, by committing the faith of the nation, yet it was never intended it should be exercised. All parties have uniformly acted upon this principle, as vital to the great interests of the country.

The second reason was, that it interfered with the reciprocal treaties, by which we are bound to reduce the duties *pari passe*, with those of the most favored nation. Instead of a diminution of revenue of $270,000 from the Germanic Confederation, by this treaty, it would have amounted to nearly two millions, as Great Britain, as well as other nations, would immediately have claimed the same reduction of duties. The treaty could not be annulled without a notice of three years, so that, in the event of a foreign war, the duties on imports, which are our principal resource, could not be advanced more than fifteen per centum. The country would have been partially deprived of its resources.

The third reason was, that the committee did not regard the stipulated concessions of the foreign contracting power, as in any degree equivalent to the considerations by which we obtain them.

In the article before alluded to, the writer has given an eloquent and interesting account of the Zoll Verien, or German Confederacy of States. Their situation he has happily compared to the United States at the close of the revolutionary war. The objects of the union were uniform standards of weights and measures, and uniform currency. But the most important, was uniform rates of duties to be levied and collected in the cities which lie upon the sea-coast, and to be divided equally, in proportion to the population, among twenty-eight millions of people, comprising nearly as many states as form our Union. This has been accomplished, and Germany is now rapidly improving, and greatly advanced in her manufactures. 811,532 persons were employed in the cotton manufacture.

Her exports of manufactured cottons have increased 360 per centum in seven years ending in 1839—that is to say, to an amount nearly equal to one-sixth part of the exports of Great Britain. This the writer attributes to a high duty, "which is nearly prohibitory."

After this statement of the advantages of a protective tariff to Germany, we cannot but ask the question, how the United States can be advanced in prosperity by a policy directly the reverse, reducing the duties from a duty of thirty per centum to fifteen per centum, to which they would be reduced by the Zoll Verien treaty?

With respect to the principles of free trade, the writer entertains a favorable opinion, and would be in favor of their adoption by the United States, if countenanced by the nations of Europe. If all restrictions were removed, each nation would have the advantage of their climate, their skill, and labor. But as long as England, France, and even the German Confederation, continue their restrictions upon every article but our cotton, it cannot be done. It would be a political suicide, with no advantage to any one, and a prostration of the best interests of the nation.

There are two classes of those who profess to have adopted the principles of free trade. One class professes to make every article of foreign merchandise free; in effect, to abolish the custom houses, and levy the taxes necessary for the expenses of the Government upon real estate. This class, however, is small. The other class comprises those who are opposed to a protective system, but who propose to make a great reduction of the duties, and pay the expenses of the Government by doubling the amount of merchandize to be imported, upon which to levy the duty.

Let us suppose the duties to be reduced by a horizontal tariff to twelve and a half per centum, which would probably pay the expenses of Government in time of peace, by a great increase of imported merchandise—and consider the consequences.

In the first instance, the hundreds of millions which have been invested in cotton and woollen manufacturing establishments, in coal mines, in the smelting of iron, its manufacture, and other manufactures, would be mostly lost. The country would be inundated with foreign manufactures to a great amount, with no means to pay for the increased importation. Thousands, or hundreds of thousands of manufacturers, would be thrown out of employ, and forced to labor in the production of what foreign nations will not buy of us. The whole mercantile class would soon experience the revulsion, from the great redundancy of foreign goods. Failures would take place in every class of the community. It would extend even to the agricultural interest. The specie now in the country, which makes our currency equal to that of any in the world, must be exported to pay the debts abroad, incurred for goods which might have been manufactured at home. In short, we should have the same distress, embarrassment, and bankruptcy, which were inflicted on the country immediately after the revolvtionary war, and the war with England in 1814. The same causes would produce the same results.

ART. VI.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.—No. V.

1775. *Bill for restraining trade of Middle and Southern Colonies.*—Soon after parliament had passed the bill for restraining the trade of New England, intelligence was received, that the inhabitants of the middle and southern colonies were supporting their northern brethren in every measure of opposition; which occasioned a second bill to be brought in and passed for imposing similar restrictions on the colonies of East and West Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, and the counties on the Delaware. Whatever was the view of the British ministry in making this discrimination, the omission of New York, Delaware, and North Carolina in this restraining bill, was considered in America as calculated to promote disunion; but the three exempted colonies spurned the proffered favor, and submitted to the restraints imposed on their neighbors.

1777. *Bibles to be imported.*—It having been found, upon inquiry, that the proper types for printing the bible were not to be had in this country, and that the paper could not be procured but with great difficulties and risk, Congress directed the committee of commerce to import 20,000 copies of the bible.

1781. *Bank of North America established.*—A national bank was instituted. The plan of it was projected by Robert Morris, one of the delegates of Pennsylvania, a man of high reputation, and well versed in affairs of commerce and finance, whom Congress had appointed a treasurer. He assigned to this bank a capital of 400,000 dollars, divided in shares of 400 dollars each, in money of gold or silver, to be procured by subscriptions. Twelve directors were to manage the bank, which was denominated by Congress, "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of North America." To the financial skill and indefatigable efforts of Mr. Morris in the treasury department, it has been thought, his country was scarce less indebted, than to the valor of her soldiers and the wisdom of her statesmen. Under his auspices, public credit revived; the army was pacified; and a new impulse was given to every operation in the field and the cabinet.

1784. *Trade of New Haven.*—The foreign trade of New Haven, which had been destroyed by the late war, was revived. The number of vessels belonging to the city, engaged in the West India and foreign trade, already amounted to 33; of which number one was a ship of 300 tons, four were square rigged vessels, or brigs; the others, sloops of 60 to 110 tons.

First United States Voyage to China.—The Empress of China, a ship of 360 tons, commanded by John Green of Boston, sailed from New York in February for Canton, and returned the following year. This was the first voyage from the United States to China.

1785. *Treaty with Prussia.*—A treaty of amity and commerce was concluded between the king of Prussia and the United States.

1786. *Act for a Mint.*—An act was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts, for establishing a mint for the coinage of gold, silver, and copper.

1788. *Card Manufactory.*—A card manufactory was set up in Boston, with a newly invented machine, essentially lessening the necessity of manual labor.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

MONEY MARKET—CONDITION OF THE COMMERCIAL WORLD—PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH CURRENCY—BANK OF ENGLAND—PRIVATE BANKS—JOINT STOCKS—IRISH AND SCOTCH BANKS—INCREASE OF BRITISH EXPORT TRADE—BRITISH RAILWAY ENTERPRISE—BENEFIT OF RAILROADS—PROGRESS OF TRADE—LEADING IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN—OPENING OF THE CHINA TRADE—RUSSIA OVERLAND TRADE—FOREIGNERS IN CHINA—TRADE OF CHINA—CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN CHINA—OPENING OF THE CHINA TRADE LIKE THE DISCOVERY OF A NEW CONTINENT—MEDIUM OF EXCHANGE WITH CHINA—COMPARATIVE TRADE OF THE FOUR LEADING NATIONS IN THE INDO-CHINESE SEAS—PROSPECTS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH REGARD TO THE CHINA TRADE—COTTON GOODS OF THE UNITED STATES SUPERSEDE THOSE OF OTHER COUNTRIES—EFFORTS OF THE ENGLISH GOVERNMENT TO SECURE THE CHINA TRADE.

THE markets have recovered their quiet, and money is daily becoming more abundant, having already fallen greatly in price since the middle of November. The general prospect of commercial affairs presents an appearance of prosperity never before equalled, throughout the commercial world. The long series of disasters, that grew out of a combination of circumstances, causing a great degree of confidence, and money to be very abundant in England in 1831–32, whence it spread to every quarter of the civilized globe, have passed away; and throughout the commercial world, probably, there was never a less amount of outstanding commercial credits than now. The consequence is everywhere a demand for money less than the supply, and therefore a low rate of interest. The change which the English currency has undergone, in its nature, is calculated to prevent an undue expansion of credits, and therefore to continue the present healthy state of affairs for a longer period than usual. The progress of the English currency since October, 1839, when the bullion of the bank was at the lowest point, and that institution was saved from bankruptcy only by a loan from the Bank of France, has been as follows:—

ENGLISH CURRENCY.

Bank of Eng.	Private bks.	Joint stock.	Irish.	Scotch.	Total.	Bullion.
Oct., 1839,						
£17,612,000	£6,341,791	£4,170,764	£4,960,731	£3,184,807	£36,269,893	£2,525,000
Dec., 1841,						
16,292,000	5,718,211	3,217,812	5,984,988	3,448,660	34,561,671	5,031,000
Aug., 1842,						
20,351,000	5,150,628	2,823,090	4,464,367	2,674,835	35,463,920	9,570,000
Jan., 1843,						
18,283,000	4,942,825	2,839,909	5,212,591	2,770,838	34,049,163	11,054,000
Aug., 1843,						
20,051,000	4,332,476	2,782,312	4,700,334	2,667,378	34,533,500	11,973,000
Feb., 1844,						
21,828,000	4,980,138	3,446,433	6,010,565	2,791,407	39,056,739	15,480,000
Sept. 11,						
19,880,660	4,338,000	3,158,290	5,410,421	2,940,456	35,727,827	15,197,771
Oct. 29,						
21,320,685	4,674,162	3,331,516	6,054,111	2,987,665	38,368,139	14,096,828
Nov. 2,						
20,819,765	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,038,752
Nov. 9,						
20,556,720	.....	.....	6,729,147	3,284,295	.....	14,115,639
Nov. 16,						
20,580,750	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,212,072
Nov. 23,						
20,178,475	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,365,580

Down to September, 1844, the old system was in operation; and, for a period of five years, the specie in the bank had been constantly increasing. The lowest point in the circulation of the bank was, it appears, December, 1841. The lowest point in the circulation of the United Kingdom was, however, in January, 1843, when the issues of the bank were 12 per cent higher than in December, 1841. This arose, however, in part,

from the stagnation of general business causing but little demand for money at the country banks.

The last four returns of the bank are under the new charter. The institution had apparently undergone some contraction previously to the commencement of operations under the new law, but soon thereafter began to work out its notes. The joint stock banks also increased their circulation; and, with the private banks, are now very near the maximum circulation allowed to them; while the Bank of England has a reserve of near £7,000,000 of notes, which it is continually trying to put upon the market. All the increase which the English currency can experience now, must be from the Bank of England. It is observable, however, that while the English private and joint stock banks are restricted to a maximum of issues, the Scotch and Irish banks are not so restricted. The general operation of paper money is to drive away the metals from the circle of its operation. Hence, the unrestricted circulation of the Irish and Scotch banks will have the effect to drive constantly the coin in circulation to London; within the circle of which, no credit issues are now suffered, the currency being purely on a specie basis. The effect of this is already apparent. When the new charter came into operation, the country banks opposed it, and drew considerable coin from the bank; in which the coin diminished, from February to November, £1,440,000, notwithstanding that exchanges were in favor of England, from all parts of the world. In the meantime, the Irish difficulties were settled, trade rapidly improved, and an immense speculation in railroads sprang up, creating a large demand for money. The country banks expanded to meet it, and the bullion is again flowing back to the bank. The harvests of England are abundant, and her export trade rapidly increasing in amount, at advancing prices; an operation which, for a long time, will tend to keep exchanges in favor of England, impelling commercial enterprise, and stimulating those large expenditures of capital in railway improvements, which enhance the employments of the people, and promote the consumption of goods. In order to estimate the extent to which railroad enterprises are now going on, we extract from the circular of a stock-broker, for November, the following statement:—

"Since our last monthly circular, there have been put forth forty-one new prospectuses of railway schemes, and the shares applied for in each have far exceeded the number to be issued. Taking the above forty-one lines into the account, the following will result:—On the 14th of August, upwards of ninety new lines, requiring more than £60,000,000 of subscribed capital to complete them, were put forward; to which add the above forty-one, stating a requirement of £35,265,000—together, upwards of 131, needing an investment of £95,266,000, with the power of borrowing one-third more, devoted to the same object; making a grand total of £127,020,000."

The probability is, as usual in these cases, that a portion of the capital will never be subscribed; but a large sum of money will no doubt be absorbed in that direction, and profitably so for all classes. In former periods of abundance and low rates, money capital has left England for other countries, in subscriptions to government stocks, and in mercantile credits on English manufactured goods consumed abroad. Both these modes of employing capital carried with them the germ of a revulsion, by causing the exchanges to turn against England; thus involving a contraction of credits, to an extent that nearly checked the whole business of the country, and ruined a great many individuals. The expenditure of that capital now, in the construction of internal means of communication, is fraught remotely, only, with similar results. It has been the experience of railroad enterprises, that they promote intercourse, and greatly enhance business in the localities through which they run. Hence, the expenditure of the capital within the country not only promotes the welfare of the laborers, but improves the means of the people to pay an interest on its outlay, in the shape of dividends on the company stocks. In this manner, it operates like the public debt; which, paid to people within the country, does not impoverish it in the degree which would be the case if a portion of the products of the country were to be shipped annually, to pay interest to the citizens of another country. A much

larger sum of money may be disbursed in these enterprises, without endangering a revulsion, than could be safely invested in foreign stocks. The immediate effect is, by promoting the welfare of the working classes, to induce a greater consumption of raw produce, and therefore, ultimately, to raise the aggregate of imports to an inconvenient amount. It is also true that rapid means of communication, and a more general distribution of capital, tend to enhance the exportable products of industry; and, by so doing, to counteract the tendency to over-import. This state of affairs of England is rapidly augmenting the activity of the internal trade, and giving a more animated circulation to money; which, to an extraordinary extent, has for years been reposing in masses, until capital seemed to have lost its power. The prosperity of England cannot progress, to any considerable extent, without promoting that of all other countries with which she has commercial intercourse.

The progress of affairs throughout the world has been such, during the thirty years which have elapsed since the cessation of European wars, that all the nations of Europe, and the United States, manufacture within themselves those articles of which they stand most in need. As this manufacture increases, the trade with each other must of necessity decline, because their mutual wants diminish; and those which manufacture a surplus must seek other and more distant countries for a market, where the products are of a different, but desirable nature. Thus, the leading imports of England are as follows:—

LEADING IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN, YEAR ENDING JANUARY 5.

	1843.	1844.	Nine mos., to Oct. 10, 1844.
Butter,.....cwts.	£175,197	£152,260	£138,089
Cheese,.....	179,748	179,568	147,541
Cocoa, ...lbs.	3,172,351	3,613,952	.....
Coffee,.....	41,444,414	38,905,446	31,243,202
Corn—Wheat,.....qrs.	2,717,454	940,666	929,689
" Wheat-meal, or flour,..cwts.	1,129,852	439,832	854,362
" Barley,.....qrs.	73,335	179,484	760,115
" Oats,.....	301,272	85,010	242,222
Indigo,.....cwts.	83,823	68,415	2,910,659
Logwood,.....tons	18,481	20,892	17,701
Madder,.....cwts.	86,382	139,143	73,926
Madder root,.....	82,879	102,216	73,284
Eggs,.....No.	89,558,747	70,448,250	.....
Currants,.....cwts.	267,086	238,414	.....
Raisins,.....	212,218	216,526	.....
Gloves, leather,.....pairs	1,623,713	1,882,182	.....
Copper ore,.....tons	49,856	55,598	.....
Iron, in bars,.....	18,701	12,809	.....
Oil—Train,.....tuns	17,473	23,859	16,943
" Palm,.....cwts.	424,242	420,277	308,798
" Cocoa-nut,.....	49,742	68,577	27,826
" Olive,.....tuns	14,095	12,139	galls. 2,105,712
Rice,.....cwts.	511,414	453,379	.....
Rice, in the husk,.....qrs.	41,420	19,877	.....
Flaxseed and linseed,.....	367,700	469,642	3,413,393
Pepper,.....lbs.	6,021,290	4,082,955	2,184,168
Spirits, rum,.....gallons	4,619,804	3,729,673	1,550,782
Brandy,.....	1,674,436	2,396,340	761,609
Geneva,.....	323,744	360,220	11,209
Sugar,.....cwts.	4,356,011	502,348	3,549,716
Tallow,.....	1,011,370	1,169,864	533,694
Tea,.....lbs.	49,742,128	45,344,449	27,792,052
Timber deals, &c., of Br. poss.,.lds.	110,319	341,873	.....
" Foreign,.....	48,715	268,618	.....
Tobacco, manufactured,.....lbs.	39,526,968	43,744,693	18,432,411
" manufactured, and snuff,..	811,064	1,137,531	190,075
Wine, all sorts,.....galls.	7,216,113	6,773,795	5,458,149

These are all the production of warm climates, mostly of her own colonies, which consume a large portion of the manufactures of the kingdom. All the nations of Europe are, however, becoming exporters of goods similar to those of England, and in competition with them; and new markets have eagerly been sought for. Hence, the opening of the China trade engendered hopes far above what will probably be realized for many years. The opening of the trade of China, leading, as it has, to a commercial treaty, of a very favorable character, with that hitherto sealed empire, is an event of the utmost importance, and will have a great influence upon the prosperity of all commercial nations. They are, therefore, all eagerly competing for the trade. Russia has always enjoyed a large overland trade with the northern part of the empire; England has enlarged her business; France has sent a diplomatic and commercial delegation, with the same object in view; and the United States, through their minister, have concluded a treaty, which, although the terms have not transpired in detail, is said to be of a favorable nature. As this event commences a new era in the commercial world, second in importance only to the discovery of this continent, we will present a brief chronological statement of affairs. The residence of Europeans in China was never formally recognized by the imperial government. Their stay was tolerated merely during good behavior, and for a few months during the most active season. At other times, they resorted to Macao. These nominal regulations were subject to suspension by edict, whenever disputes arose. All orders and communications of the government were transmitted to foreigners through the Hong. These disputes and outbreaks were gradually becoming more frequent, down to 1831; when a great deal of acrimony was apparent on both sides. At this juncture, the imperial government became alarmed at the continual increase of the quantity of opium imported, the consequent increasing demoralization of the people, and the swelling drain of sycee silver in payment. The trade, as appears from official statements, had been 5,000 chests per annum in 1820, 10,000 chests in 1830, and 35,000 chests in 1839; and its efforts to suppress the trade caused great ill feeling, and an evident determination, on the part of the English, to enforce the trade. It yields a profit to the East India Company of £2,500,000, or about $12,500,000 per annum. On one of these occasions, it was asserted that the lieutenant-governor of Canton had turned *his back* upon a *picture* of the *British king*, a Chinese mode of showing contempt. This seems to have commenced a series of events, the principal of which occurred as follows:—

CHRONOLOGY OF EVENTS IN CHINA.

1831—August 27. Lord William Bentnick wrote to the governor of Canton, complaining of the conduct of the authorities, and requesting an investigation into the alleged insult to the king's picture.

1832—January 7. Governor of Canton issued an edict, denying the insult to the picture, and refusing any direct reply to Lord Bentnick.

" February 9. Edict threatening to stop the foreign trade, if the introduction of opium was persisted in.

1834—April 22. The East India Company ceased.

" " 25. First free ship, with tea, stiled for England.

" July 15. Lord Napier, as superintendent of British commerce in China, arrived at Macao.

" July 17. J. F. Davis, Esq., and Sir L. P. Robinson, appointed second and third superintendents.

" July 26. Lord Napier, at Canton, addressed a letter to the governor, requesting an interview. This letter was rejected, not being in the prescribed form of a petition.

" August 18. Edict orders Lord Napier to retire to Macao, under penalty of stopping the trade.

" September 2. Trade stopped. All intercourse with the British prohibited.

" " 5. Two British ships enter Canton river.

" " 19. A conference between the Hong and some English, decide that Lord Napier should leave Canton, and the trade be resumed.

1834—October 11. Lord Napier died of chagrin at Macao. Succeeded by Mr. Davis, and Captain Elliott as secretary.
" November 7. Imperial mandate interdicts the opium trade.
1835—January 25. Crew of the Argyle seized on the Chinese coast, and detained.
" February 4. Captain Elliott, as superintendent, went to Canton to demand liberation of the Argyle's crew, and was ordered away.
" February 18. Crew liberated.
" February 23. Some chests of opium seized, and publicly burnt at Canton. British trade continues through the rest of the year.
1836—June 29. L. P. Robinson recalled to England, and Elliott made chief of the commission.
" November 28. Chamber of commerce established at Canton.
" December 14. Captain Elliott supplicated the governor of Canton to be allowed to reside in that city.
" December 22. The governor of Canton sent a deputation to Macao to inquire into the truth of Elliott's statements, directing that he be not allowed to leave Macao.
" December 28. The Hong merchants accompany the deputation, and Elliott returned a note to the governor expressing his satisfaction, and willingness to remain at Macao until further orders.
1837—March. Imperial edict allowing Elliott to go to Canton.
" April 1. Captain Elliott being in Canton, complains to his own government that Chinese authorities do not communicate with him directly.
" April 8. Captain Elliott wrote to the governor that some English seamen had saved seventeen Chinese from drowning.
" April 19. The governor instructed the Hong merchants to direct Elliott to be more respectful in his language, and to submit his communications to the Hong, that they might judge of their contents.
" April 22. Elliott addressed the governor, refusing to communicate any longer through the Hong.
" April 25. The governor consents to receive sealed despatches direct, but not to send direct. Elliott assents.
" September. Edicts directing Elliott to send away all opium ships.
" November. Despatches received from the British government, forbidding Elliott to send his communications in the form of petitions; which led to the suspension of trade. Opium smuggling rapidly increased.
1838—January. A native Chinese condemned to death for smuggling opium.
" July 12. Admiral Maitland arrived at Macao in a man-of-war, to protect British subjects.
" December 13. The execution of the Chinese smuggler resisted by the English.
" December 18. Captain Elliott orders all British opium vessels to leave the river in three days.
1839—January. Foreign trade re-opened.
" February 26. A Chinese opium smuggler executed.
" March 18. Commissioner Lin issued an edict commanding all opium ships to be given up.
" March 19. Foreign residents forbidden to leave Canton.
" March 24. Captain Elliott reached Canton.
" March 25. English merchants gave a solemn pledge not to deal in opium. Captain Elliott demanded passports for the English, which were refused until the opium was surrendered.
" March 27. Captain Elliott required that all the opium should be delivered to him for the service of Her Majesty's government.
" April 10. Lin went to Bocca Tigris to witness the delivery of the opium.
" April 20. Half the opium delivered.
" May 4. Re-opening of trade.
" May 8. Americans and Dutch permitted to leave Canton. Future dealings in opium to be punished with death.
" May 21. Balance of opium delivered—20,283 chests in all.
" May 24. Nearly all foreign merchants had left Canton.
" June. Twenty days employed destroying opium.
" September 11. Notice given that Canton river would be blockaded.
" September 16. Notice withdrawn.
" November 3. Attack of the junks upon the British frigates. Beaten off with loss.
" November 26. Edict ordering cessation of the British trade.

1840—February 2. Lin sends a letter to the Queen of England, remonstrating against the opium trade.
" February 6. Lin made governor of the provinces Kwang-tung and Kwang-si.
" June 9. Attempt to burn the British fleet by fire-rafts.
" June 22. British forces arrive—15 men-of-war, 4 steamers, and 4,000 soldiers.
" July 5. The city of Ting-hai surrendered, with gigans.
" July 10. Rewards offered for the capture or death of Englishmen.
" August 11. Captain Elliott, on board a steamer, entered a river near Pekin.
" August 30. Conference between Captain Elliott and the Chinese minister Keshen.
" September 27. Lin degraded from office.
" November 6. Truce announced by Elliott.
1841—January 6. Truce violated by the English. Edict in consequence, that all English should be destroyed, wherever met with.
" January 7. Chuen-pe and Tae-eok-tow captured, with 170 guns, and truce granted by Elliott.
" January 20. Treaty announced. Hong-Kong ceded to England, $6,000,000 cash to be paid, trade to be opened in ten days, and official communications to be direct, on equal terms.
" January 26. Possession taken of Hong-Kong.
" February 11. Imperial edict rejects treaty.
" February 23. Hostilities resumed.
" February 24. Chusan evacuated.
" February 25. Rewards offered for Englishmen.
" March 2. Sir Hugh Gough takes command of the troops.
" March 12. Keshen degraded, and made prisoner.
" March 18. The foreign factories at Canton taken possession of by the British.
" April 16. New commissioners from Pekin arrived at Canton.
" May 27. Authorities agree to pay $6,000,000 for the ransom of Canton. Consequent cessation of hostilities.
" May 31. $5,000,000 paid. British withdrawn from Canton.
" August. Captain Elliott superseded by Sir H. Pottinger.
" August 27. Amoy taken by the British.
" October 10. Chin-hae taken. October 13. Ning-po captured.
" December 28. Yu-yaou, Free-kee, and Foong-hae carried.
1842—July 18. The great canal cut off from the river, and British armament anchor near the "Golden Isle."
" July 21. Chin-keang taken. Tartar general commits suicide.
" August 9. Fleet reaches Nankin.
" August 12. Ke-ying arrives at Nankin, with full powers to treat.
" August 29. Treaty of peace signed, providing as follows:—1st. Lasting peace. 2d. China to pay $21,000,000. 3d. Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai, to be open to commerce. 4th. Hong-Kong ceded in perpetuity to England. 5th. All British subjects in confinement to be released; the British to retire on the payment of the first $6,000,000.
" September 8. Emperor gives his assent.
" December 31. Great seal of England affixed to treaty.
1843—July 22. Proclamation by Sir H. Pottinger, that a commercial treaty had been concluded.
" United States appoint Caleb Cushing, Esq., minister to China.
1844—March. Sir W. Parker, commander at Hong-Kong, arrived at Calcutta, with an offer of £1,500,000 per annum tribute, from the Chinese government, on condition that the cultivation of opium should be renounced in the British possessions. This was rejected, because the profits are £2,500,000 now.
" July. Commercial treaty between the United States and China concluded.
" December 9. Chinese treaty read in the United States Senate.

We have thus thrown in chronological order the leading events which have led to one of the greatest commercial revolutions that ever took place. The effects of the discovery of this continent are now, after the lapse of three centuries, just beginning to develope themselves. It has required that length of time for the country to become settled, and to grow into an importance sufficient to make its influence felt upon the welfare of the old world. The opening of China to trade, is like the discovery of a new continent, ready peopled with a rich, industrious people, numbering 200,000,000, with wants in unison

with the customs of the nations of Europe; and to supply which, is looked upon as a source of great future prosperity, and most nations are eager for the trade. The difficulty that presents itself, is the want of some medium of returns, apart from tea and silks, of which the quantity may, in some degree, be increased. There has, as yet, presented itself no important article of export from that country. Time may, indeed, develope some new medium of exchange—among others, quicksilver, and tallow from that extraordinary tree, which, it is said, is to be found in abundance in the forests of China. Something of the kind must present itself, before any very large trade can be carried on; because what she now exports, is more than counterbalanced by the imports of opium. The wants of the population of China are undoubtedly large; and, inhabiting a varied climate, they must want those articles of clothing which are now made in such profusion in Europe. The comparative trade of the four leading nations in the Indo-Chinese seas, is seen as follows:—

	1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
British,.....	1,271	523,556	1,411	576,607	1,730	717,586	1,571	640,196
Dutch,.....	375	200,098	387	201,593	350	217,610	350	203,060
American,.....	497	163,578	472	143,602	538	163,414	549	161,069
French,.....	312	96,658	262	79,193	348	105,152	307	88,373

There is but little doubt that the United States are destined ultimately to command all the trade in the Indian and China seas. The supply of cotton in the United States, including Texas, is far beyond what the wants of Europe require. The wants of China are, however, such as will absorb almost a limitless quantity. The cotton goods manufactured in the United States already supersede those of all other countries in those markets, and American lead has entirely supplanted the English. The English government hope, by commanding the exclusive route to China over Egypt, by way of the Nile and the Isthmus of Suez, (to effect which, a negotiation is now pending between that power and the Pacha,) to obtain news several weeks earlier than it can be had in the United States; an advantage which will give her merchants control of the markets. Their diplomacy may succeed temporarily in this, but the march of events will ultimately give the United States the mastery. Her population is pushing, with a vigorous, rapid, and unceasing march, along a line 1,200 miles in extent, westward, towards the shores of the Pacific. The occupation of the vast territory known as the Oregon, is already going forward; and twenty years will not have elapsed, before a powerful state will have sprung up on the shores of the Pacific. This great tract of the Oregon is drained by the Columbia river and the San Francisco, which debouch upon the ocean at a point six days, by steam, distant from the Sandwich islands—a group the independence of which is guaranteed; whose population is 100,000, mostly American; the surface, 8,000 square miles; of a soil the most fruitful, and a climate unsurpassed in salubrity. These islands are situated in the middle of the Pacific, on the great highway from Oregon to China. The great whale fishery of these regions is conducted mostly by Americans, numbering 200 vessels, whose annual product is about $5,000,000. This fleet, in the summer months, cruises between the islands and the coast of Japan, for sperm whale, and carry on a large trade in furs, &c., which are now sold in China, and the proceeds, in tea, sent home to the United States. The whole of this vast trade, and that of China, via the Sandwich islands, will be commanded by the State of Oregon. Those persons are now living who will see a railroad connecting New York with the Pacific, and a steam communication from Oregon to China. For the last three centuries, the civilized world has been rolling westward; and Americans of the present age will complete the circle, and open a *western* steam route with the *east*.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MEMORANDUM CHECKS.

In the Court of Common Pleas, New York, before Judge Ulshoeffer. Elihu Pedrick, *adm.*, *vs.* the Merchants' Bank of New York.

This is a special action on the case. The declaration contains four special counts, to which the defendant demurs, by a general and special demurrer to the whole declaration. If either count is good, the plaintiff is entitled to judgment on the demurrer. The second and third counts set out a check, drawn by one M'Farland on the bank, payable to defendant's order, for $876, with the word memorandum, or memo., written at the top thereof; and the plaintiffs aver that they paid this check to defendant, who defrauded them by taking off the word "memo.," which word made the check a mere memorandum of indebtedness, and whereby the plaintiffs lost that sum of money. The plaintiffs aver that if the word "memo." had not been taken off, they would not have paid it; as it was a notice not to pay.

It seems to me that writing the word "memo." upon the face of a bond, bill of exchange, due-bill, or the like, would not alter the legal effect of any such instrument. The word has no legal signification beyond that of noting, observing, remembering; and may be thus paraphrased:—Memo., that I owe A. B. $100, or some other amount; or that, sixty days after date, I promise to pay; or that the Merchants' bank are to pay to A. B. the specified amount. But it is argued that the word "memo.," prefixed to an instrument, is a defeasance, and proves that the agreement is not to be performed. I suppose that when such a word is prefixed to an agreement otherwise complete, not of itself importing anything contrary to the agreement, and without meaning, it ought to be wholly rejected. Considered as part of the check, I have before stated the effect of the word "memo." As distinct from the check, it cannot affect it. If I am right in this view, it is doubtful if any custom of bankers or merchants can be offered in evidence, (if any such custom exists,) to give the effect of a defeasance to a single word. But the plaintiff relies on the intended effect of the check between the parties. But I seriously doubt whether the word "memo." furnishes evidence of any intention of defeasance. If you may not contradict the legal signification of an instrument by parol testimony, you cannot, out of a single word, a full special agreement of cancellation. Unless I am in error in this view, the plaintiffs could not prove the meaning of this "memo.," but by the written agreement of the parties to the check, made simultaneously therewith. The plaintiffs were bound to pay the check upon presentation, if in funds, on account of the drawer, whether the word "memo." was on it or not. If not in funds, on his account, they could pay it at their own risk, and recover it back from the drawer. But the plaintiff's case is mainly placed on the allegation of fraud against the defendant. But, assuming that there was an agreement between the drawer and the payee, that the check should not be presented at the bank for payment, yet the presentation of such a check is no fraud on the banker, however it may be a breach of the agreement with the drawer. The plaintiffs insist that the word "memo." would have put them on their guard, and that the removal thereof was a fraud on them; but, if the word was inoperative, its removal was no fraud. Besides, I think that the payee could not have recovered the amount from the drawer, without presenting it to the bank. (21 Wendall, 372.)

His Honor then proceeded to examine the first and fourth counts. These counts do not set forth the check as it was actually drawn, with the precise word which plaintiffs contend annulled it; and they therefore contend that if, in judgment of law, the second

and third counts are bad, the first and fourth are not liable to be overruled, because they set forth the agreement of nullification and notice sufficiently, which is admitted by the demurrer, and because there is not anything set forth in these counts which can, in legal effect, sanction defendants' conduct, or repudiate the allegation of fraud. These counts set forth good causes of action. The only question is, whether the allegation of the loss of the amount of the check to the plaintiffs is sufficiently stated. We could only condemn the allegation of loss in these two counts on the ground that the plaintiffs paid the check in their own wrong, or that they could compel the drawer of the check to repay the loss; neither of which grounds could be supported under the facts stated in said counts. If defendant fraudulently erased the agreement or memorandum, as detailed in these counts, the plaintiffs had no right to pay the money on the drawer's account, and could not recover it back from him. And defendant, who is charged with misleading plaintiff by a fraud, cannot answer that plaintiffs paid the check in their own wrong. They paid it in consequence of defendant's fraud, of which they were ignorant. With evidence at the trial sufficient to prove the first and fourth counts, I think they may be sustained, but think the second and third counts exceptionable in substance.

Judgment for plaintiffs on demurrer, with liberty for defendants to plead on paying costs.

CASE OF A LIBEL—PILOT'S FEES.

District Court of the United States, in admiralty, September, 1844. Nash *vs.* schooner Thebes

This was the case of a libel by Nash, a duly commissioned pilot for the port of Boston, against the schooner Thebes. It appeared that the libellant hailed the schooner Thebes, a foreign vessel, bound from Digby to Lynn, outside the line drawn from Harding's rocks to the outward Graves, and from thence to Nahant head, and offered his services as a Boston pilot, which were refused because she was bound to Lynn. He subsequently twice spoke the same vessel outside the same line, when bound from Digby to Dorchester, and offered his services as a Boston pilot, which were refused because she was bound to Dorchester.

Lynn and Dorchester have respectively harbors, not within the harbor of Boston; but, in order to reach them, it is necessary to pass some distance within the line above described; and it was testified by an experienced Boston pilot that he considered Boston harbor to extend to that line, because it was named in the statute and regulations respecting pilotage, and that a Boston pilot on board a vessel bound to Lynn, would leave her at a point some distance within that line, called the northwest head of Lynn; and, if bound to Dorchester, at a point some distance within that line, near Thompson's island. The libellant claimed full fees as a Boston pilot, for the several times his services were tendered.

Sprague, Judge.—In the case of Commonwealth *vs.* Micketson, (5 Metcalf, 412,) it was held that the 11th section of the 32d chapter of the revised statutes of Massachusetts applied to the port of Boston; and that a pilot whose services are refused, when duly tendered to a vessel bound into that port, is entitled to full fees. It is agreed that the words "port" and "harbor," as used in the act, are synonymous. Was this vessel bound into the port or harbor of Boston, within the meaning of the law, so as to entitle the libellant to his stated fees as a pilot? The statute has neither prescribed the fees, nor defined the duties of pilots for the harbor of Boston, but has left that to be done by certain commissioners, who are authorized to appoint and commission pilots, and to make regulations respecting pilotage. (Revised Statutes, ch. 32, sec. 15 to 22.) The commissioners have established the fee to be paid for piloting a vessel like the Thebes into the harbor of Boston, and one of the regulations is as follows:—"It shall be the duty of every pilot, after having brought a vessel into the harbor of Boston, to have such vessel properly moored in the stream, or secured to a wharf, at the option of the master, within twenty-

four hours after the arrival of said vessel, if the weather permits, without extra charge." (Regulations, No. 8.) The duty to be performed is entire, and the fee prescribed supposes the performance of the whole duty, including that of securing the vessel to a wharf, or mooring her in a place of safety. These regulations, made pursuant to the statute, are of the same force as if they had been incorporated into it; and they do not contemplate a case in which only a part of the service can be performed within the harbor of Boston, and where it must be completed in another part. In the present case, if the track of the Thebes, in going to Lynn and Dorchester, would be over waters which may, for any purpose, be deemed within the limits of Boston harbor, it does not appear that there was any anchorage, or any place used as a harbor for repose or security, or where a vessel could be moored in safety, in any part of such track. And it is proved that she would pass beyond the limits of Boston harbor before she could be moored or secured in the port to which she was bound; and if she had taken the libellant on board, he would have left her while still under way to her port of destination, and she must have sought another pilot for the residue of the voyage. Suppose a Lynn pilot, duly commissioned by the governor, under the statute, should take charge of a vessel bound to Lynn, outside the line from Harding's rocks to the outward Graves, and thence to Nahant head; the construction contended for by the libellant would compel the master to pay a Boston pilot, also—and that, too, for the service of perhaps but a moment; for if it be said that, within the strict letter, a vessel is bound into Boston harbor if she be about to cross any of its waters, it may also be said that she is bound out of that harbor the instant she enters it, and the services of a Boston pilot would no longer be required for the purpose of bringing her into it. Another result of that construction would be, that a Lynn pilot, who should merely conduct a vessel from sea, directly to his own port, would incur the penalty imposed by the 23d section of the statute for piloting a vessel into Boston harbor. Such construction is not required either by the language of the act, or its general scope and policy, and ought not, I think, to be adopted. The Thebes was cleared for Boston, but was in fair truth bound to Lynn and Dorchester respectively, and actually proceeded directly to those ports. It is usual at Digby to clear for Boston, although bound to those other ports, and there is no sufficient ground to presume that any fraud or evasion was intended. It is not the being cleared for a port, but being actually bound into it, that imposes on a vessel the obligation to pay a pilot. Libel dismissed, with costs.

COMMISSION MERCHANTS.

In the Vice-Chancellor's Court, Boston, (Mass.) Charles Tyler *vs.* E. & E. C. Poppe. The defendants are commission merchants. The complainant came from England, and was introduced to Messrs. P. as a suitable firm to which to consign a large quantity of Sherry wine. On his return, he consigned to defendants, in three shipments, 1,290 dozen wine, valued at $10,000, on which Messrs. Poppe paid freight and duty, had the wine carried to their store, and insured. The wine was not sold, and complainant arrived here in January, 1843. He finally made application for an injunction, restraining Messrs. P. from "pledging, selling, or disposing" of said wine. He alleged that he had given instructions that the wine should be left in the custom-house stores, not only because wine and brandy are injured in reputation by being taken to a private store, but in order to secure the benefit of drawback, should he wish to export it. In order to secure this being done, he did not send any invoices; yet Messrs. Poppe procured false invoices to be made out, and swore them through at the custom-house; thereby, it is contended, committing perjury. The complainant, it is said, authorized Messrs. P., after coming out, to sell the wine at $6 a dozen, but they could not get that for it; and but $2 a dozen was offered.

The defendants claimed that they had a right to sell wine to cover their expenses and advances, amounting to $6,428 36. The claimant obtained the injunction. The present motion is for an attachment for violation of the injunction, and for the appointment of a

receiver; Messrs. P. having, since the injunction, it is averred, offered to sell the wine in defiance of the Court, and that their credit is not so good as it was. In answer to this, it is urged that an offer to sell is not a violation of the injunction; and farther, that the credit of defendants has not been impaired—that they are worth $100,000, after the payment of their debts—that the Messrs. P. are Germans, but have been in the country ten years, and that the offer to sell, by Mr. Charles E. Poppe, was from a want of knowledge of the nature of an injunction. They also deny having received instructions to leave the wine in the custom-house.

The second letter directed the wine to be placed "in a dry bonded cellar," but contained no other intimation; and farther, that the fictitious invoice had been signed by the friend of complainant himself, in order to save the expense of the goods being placed in the custom-house store.

The Court, in its decision, stated that a consigner should be very explicit in his directions, in order to hold his consignee. The bills of lading were duly made out to defendants, and they obtained, in that way, lawful possession of the goods. As to the intention of having the wines remain in the custom-house, the instructions on that point were not sufficiently explicit. There is no such thing known here as a "dry bonded store," and the defendants were not bound to construe the term in the manner charged. There are matters of fact, however, in the case, which cannot be passed upon here. As to the offer to sell the wines after the injunction had been ordered, it is no excuse to say the defendant did not understand it.

The offer to sell, although it would not warrant the issuing of an attachment as a violation, would still be sufficient, in the discretion of the Court, to authorize the appointment of a receiver. The defendants, however, are men of wealth and standing, have made disbursements, and are able to meet any penalty for violation of the injunction, should such in future take place. But there must be no farther offer to sell till the injunction is removed. Motions for attachment and receiver denied.

AGENT.—ACTION TO RECOVER LOSS ON SALE OF COTTON.

In the Superior Court, (New York,) in the case of Joseph Wood *vs.* Daniel B. Rising. This was an action to recover loss on a sale of cotton. Representation was made to Mr. Wood, by the broker, Rising, that the cotton (200 bales) had been sold to Mr. A. C. Dean, as agent for Mr. J. Griswold, manufacturer, Mass. The latter proved not to have been the case, and Dean pleaded subsequently that he was a minor. Dean gave back the cotton, and paid $400 besides. The price having fallen, on re-sale, a loss occurred of about $1,600. Mr. Wood charges Mr. Rising with fraud, in representing Dean to have been agent for Mr. Griswold, and brings action to recover the amount of difference. Mr. Rising denies having acted with improper motives.

The Court charged that if Rising, for the purpose of reconciling Wood to this sale, or for any other fraudulent purpose, held out to Wood the idea that the cotton was bought for Griswold as principal, knowing it to be otherwise, then has he committed a fraud on the plaintiff, which renders him liable in the action.

It is not necessary to charge a party with fraud that he has been benefitted by the fraud. If a party has been injured by the wilful misrepresentations of another, he can maintain his action, though the party so misrepresenting has made nothing by it. If, from the evidence, you believe that Rising honestly supposed that Dean bought as agent, for Griswold as principal, and such turns out not to be the fact, his having been mistaken in this particular will not make him liable. Mere mistake cannot subject a party to the penalties of fraud. Knowledge and intention are indispensable ingredients in fraud.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

NEW BRAZILIAN TARIFF OF DUTIES.

By decree dated 12th August, the per centage of duties to be enforced from and after 11th November, on imports cleared for consumption, is declared to be as follows:—

Sixty per cent.—Every description of manufactured and unmanufactured tobacco.

Fifty per cent.—Ale and porter; brandy, cider, gin; hewn stone, of every description; linen coffee bags, of every description; liqueurs, of every description; poinard knives, refined sugar, tea, wines of every description.

Forty per cent.—Candles—composition, tallow; carpeting; carriages of every description, or any part or parts thereof; chandeliers; china ink-stands, or sand-boxes; chocolate—ordinary; coffee bagging, earthenware. Not otherwise specified—fire-works of every description, furniture. Glass—ordinary plain wine, liqueur, champagne, and porter glasses; ordinary plain mugs and tumblers, from 10 to 1 to the quartilha; ordinary plain decanters, to 1 quartilha. (The foregoing described in tariff as N. 1.) Ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought wine, liqueurs, champagne, and porter glasses; ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought mugs and tumblers, from 10 to 1 to the quartilha; ordinary cast or wrought, or cast and wrought decanters to 1 quartilha. (The foregoing described in tariff as N. 2.) Ordinary plain cast or wrought wine and liqueur glasses, with cut or plain bottoms. (Described in the tariff as N. 3.) Square bottles, with stoppers, to 3 lbs.; without stoppers, to 2 lbs.; wide-mouthed bottles, with stoppers, to 4 lbs.; without stoppers, common green or other dark bottles, to 1 quartilha; chimneys, lamps, gunpowder, harness, ivory-handled brushes, mahogany and other fine woods, in boards or veneer; paper—folio post and imperial, hanging, painted, gilt, or silvered; playing cards; preserved fruits, dry or in liquor; ready-made clothing; scales, shaving and other soap, vinegar.

Twenty-five per cent.—Anniseed, biscuit; brass, sheet and plate; copper, copperas; fish—salted or pickled; flour, gall Aleppo; iron—bar, pig, rod, and sheet; ivory, jerked beef; lead—bar and sheet; leather—hog skins, kid skins, Morocco, sole, varnished, waxed calf skins; osier, salted beef and pork, saltpetre, steel, tar; tin—bar and rod, tin-plates.

Twenty per cent.—Barilla, embroidery of every description, not being of pure gold or silver, or being mixed with silk, linen, or cotton; handkerchiefs of linen, cambric, or cotton; lace—cotton, not embroidered, thread, or silk; regimental sashes, of silk net.

Ten per cent.—Books, charts, damasks, dresses, embroidery of pure gold or silver, globes, hair; instruments—mathematical and philosophical, maps, silk net and sewing, velvet.

Six per cent.—Gold and silver bullion, cord, lace; spangles, if of pure metal.

Five per cent.—Coals, gold for gilding, manufactured silver.

Four per cent.—Jewelry, of gold or silver; gold, manufactured.

Two per cent.—Animals for breeding; diamonds, and other precious stones, not mounted; plants and seeds.

Thirty per cent.—All and every other article not included in the foregoing.

The amount of duty upon most articles is stated in the tariff. All other goods are to be cleared by valuation; such being subject, as heretofore, to be taken, upon payment of the estimated value of 10 per cent additional. The duties upon trans-shipment or re-export, are reduced to 1 per cent, subject to the approval of the legislature; and sureties must be given, until the decision of the legislature be known, for 15½ per cent upon all merchandise sent from Brazil to the coast of Africa, 2½ per cent if shipped to other foreign ports. The 5 per cent hitherto charged for storage and clearance, is included in the above recited per centages. All descriptions of merchandise denominated "estiva" goods, are allowed to be landed fifteen days, other descriptions two months, free of charge for storage; both being subsequently chargeable ½ per cent per month, or part of a month. Goods re-exported, subject to the like payment of ½ per cent per month, for such period as they may remain in the custom-house. The government is authorized to impose upon the merchandise of any country, in which the produce of Brazil is liable to a higher duty than similar produce of other countries, an additional duty, so as to neutralize the ill effects of the difference of duty upon Brazil produce, such additional duty to cease when the increased duty upon Brazil produce shall be abolished. A similar differential duty will be charged upon the merchandise of any country in which the produce of Brazil is chargeable with a higher duty if imported in foreign vessels, than in national bottoms.

The above recited duties on imports cannot be increased during the finance year 1844–45, but the government is empowered to direct the payment, in gold and silver coin, of 5 per cent of the amount of these duties, upon such articles as are chargeable with more than 6 per cent, and less than 50 per cent.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF PORTUGAL.

The following decree of the Portuguese government, respecting the commerce of the possessions of that nation, beyond sea—that is, out of Europe—has been officially communicated by the Portuguese minister plenipotentiary to the Department of State, at Washington, and is now published under date of Department of State, Washington, November 18, 1844, for the benefit of our merchants:—

It being necessary to declare into what ports of the provinces, beyond sea, vessels may be admitted, belonging to nations which are allowed by treaty to trade with those provinces; and such a declaration being more requisite, not only because it is demanded by good faith, but also because, from the wants of it, serious evils may result to commerce; whilst, at the same time, it is indispensable to organize the various custom-houses according to the wants and the nature of the trade of each port; such a declaration being the more necessary, also, in order to avoid the difficulties which must arise, if the ports into which foreign vessels can enter, agreeably to treaty, be not designated, and for the security of the said provinces, and the preservation and increase of commercial relations between the different portions of the national territory; and it being necessary for the interests of Portuguese producers that the merchandise and articles, the entrance of which into the provinces beyond sea is entirely prohibited, and those whose importation be admitted when they are Portuguese produce imported in Portuguese vessels; and my government having, with these objects, submitted a proper project of a law to the Chamber of Deputies, which the multitude of affairs before that body did not allow it to have discussed; I, taking into consideration these reasons, and conceiving that these measures were specially required for the good of the provinces beyond sea, whose situation demands the immediate application of means proper to raise them to that wealth and prosperity which they can never attain except by lawful trade; using the facilities conferred on me by the first article of the law of May 12, 1843, having listened to the opinions of my ministers of state, have determined to decree as follows:—

Decree.

Art. 1. British ships shall, according to the stipulations of the treaty of July 3d, 1842, between the two powers, be admitted into the Portuguese ports designated in the following Table 1.

The commerce of the other ports, not mentioned in said table, shall be confined to coasters, and thus shall be carried on in Portuguese vessels only.

Art. 2. The importation into Portuguese possessions of the articles set forth in Table 2, is prohibited; as also of articles produced in those possessions, and which are commonly exported, except goods produced in adjoining countries, and imported by land.

Art. 3. The goods and merchandise stated in Table 3, shall be admitted into the Portuguese possessions, if they be the produce of the Portuguese dominions, and be imported in Portuguese vessels.

Art. 4. Vessels and goods coming from the possessions of the British East India Company shall be subjected in the Portuguese possessions to an increase of duty equal to that paid by Portuguese vessels and goods in the possessions of that company.

Art. 5. British vessels are allowed to export to foreign ports all the productions of the Portuguese possessions, except Orchel; and all other productions, the administration of which is or may become the property of the state by contract, and which cannot be exported in national vessels. These productions shall all be subject to the duties or exportation now established, or which may hereafter be established.

Art. 6. In the ports named in Table 1, shall be admitted the vessels of the various nations with which stipulations for trade with the Portuguese possessions shall have been stipulated by treaty.

Art. 7. All laws to the contrary are revoked.

The Minister of Marine, and of affairs relating to possessions beyond sea, shall have this executed. The Queen. Joaquim Jose Falcas.

Palace of Necessidades, June 5, 1844.

TABLE 1.—*Ports of the Portuguese Possessions in which Foreign Vessels may be admitted.*

Archipelago of Cape Verde—In the island of St. Jago, the port of Villador Praia. In the island of Majo, port of Inglez. In the island of Bona Vista, the port of Sal-rei. In the island of Sal, the port of Madama, or Port Martins.

Coast of Guinea—The ports of Bissan and Cacheu.

Islands of St. Thomas and Principe—In Principe, the port of Baia das Agulbas, or any other to which the custom-house may be transferred. In St. Thomas, the port of Didado.

Angola and Benguela—The ports of Loanda and Benguela.

Mozambique coast—The port of Mozambique.

Portuguese possessions in the East Indies—The ports of Goa and Diu.

Archipelago of Zoolor and Timor—In Timor, the port of Delly.

TABLE 2.—*Merchandise, the importation of which, into the Portuguese possessions, is prohibited in general.*

Artillery projectiles, incendiary mixtures.

TABLE 3.—*Merchandise which may be imported into the Portuguese possessions, if of Portuguese production, brought in Portuguese vessels.*

Powder, fire and cutting arms, salt, soap, snuff, and tobacco of all sorts, in leaf. Wine of all kinds, except champagne. Liqueurs, brandy, vinegar, olive, cocoa, and palm oils, blue calico. Scythes and reap-hooks, nails, plated ware, linens, smoked and salted pork, wooden furniture of all kinds, clothes and hose made up, and all other articles, the importation of which into Portugal is prohibited by the tariff law. Rum may, however, be admitted, until a regulation be made to the contrary.

NEW BELGIAN TARIFF OF DUTIES.

The Paris papers bring us accounts of an increase made by the Belgian government in the duties upon silk and cotton manufactures, and also upon machines imported into that country. The main clauses of the ordinance just issued by the Belgian government, will be found below. As regards England, the duties on cotton and silk manufactures are greatly increased; while the productions of France and the Zoll-verein are admitted at the present duties. The effect will be to drive the manufactures of Manchester out of the Belgian markets, and to have them replaced by the manufactures of Rouen and Mulhausen.

RESOLUTION for the modification of the tariff of the duties on entry on machinery; on certain chemical preparations; on cotton cloths, dyed or printed; on silks, dyed or printed; on tulles, bleached, dyed, or printed, &c.

LEOPOLD, KING OF THE BELGIANS, TO ALL WHOM IT MAY CONCERN, GREETING:—

With respect to the reports made by the Commission of Inquiry, and sent to the government by the Chamber of Representatives, in the sitting of the 14th May, 1844, on the report of our Minister of the Interior and of Finances, we have resolved, and we hereby resolve, that the tariff of duties on entry be modified as follows:—

MACHINERY.—French steam-engines, 15f. per 100 kilog.; steam-engines for navigation, 25f. do.; locomotives, without tender, 35f. do.; all kinds of machines and mechanism, not specially denominated, 25f. do.; cards for combing, 75f. do.; tenders, boilers, gasometers, &c., in iron or cast iron, 20f.; in copper, or any other metal, 40f. do.; detached pieces, in cast iron, 15f.; in malleable iron, 20f.; in copper, and other materials, 40f. do.; machinery in wood, at the rate of other wooden works.

CHEMICAL PRODUCTIONS.—Alum, 4f. per 100 kilog.; soda, &c., 6f. do.; sal ammoniac, 20f. do.

TISSUES OF COTTON.—Unbleached or bleached, the present duty; dyed or printed, 325f. per 100 kilog.

TISSUES OF SILK, (excepting ribbons, which continue at the present duty.)—Unbleached or half bleached, the present duty; bleached, dyed, or printed, 10f. per kilog.

TULLES AND LACE.—Cotton tulle, unbleached, as at present; bleached, dressed, or colored, 18f. per kilog.; worked, 12f.

SPECIAL DISPOSITIONS.

The metal cases in which tin shall be imported, are subject, according to the metal, to a different duty from the goods.

Engines and machinery may be imported by sea, by the Maese, and by the custom-house offices attached to the state railroads.

The duties on machines, or part machines, are computed on the nett weight.

The declaration must establish, independently of the nature of the machines and the general weight, the pieces of which it consists.

There shall be produced, in support of that declaration—1. An inventory explanatory of the objects to which it relates, and indicating the number, the object, the weight, and metal of each piece imported. 2. A plan on a scale distinctly setting forth the metals of which the machine is formed.

During a year, from the present time, the augmentation of entry duties shall not be applicable to French cotton cloths, the origin of which shall be fully justified, in conformity to regulations to be laid down by the Minister of Finance. Neither shall they be applicable to the productions of the Zoll-verein, during the existence of the treaty of the 1st of September, 1844, between Belgium and the Zoll-verein, and from the present time, pending the exchange of the ratifications of the said treaty.

The present duty of 4f. is continued—1. On silk tissues, of French origin, during the remainder of the convention of 1842. 2. On those of Zoll-verein origin, during the existence of the treaty of the 1st of September, 1844, &c.

The importation of unbleached and half bleached tissues, for the purpose of being dyed and printed, and then re-exported, will be allowed free of duty.

DIFFERENTIAL DUTIES ON IMPORTS—EXTRACT REDUCED INTO BRITISH WEIGHT AND MONEY.

From Countries out of Europe, other than the places of production.

Articles.	By Belg. vessels.		Vess. of country whence imported.		Other foreign vessels.	
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Pernambuco wood,.....per ton	18	6	37	0	46	6
Cocoa,.....per cwt.	3	4	4	4	5	6
Coffee,.....	5	0	5	10	6	8
Hemp,.....	0	2½	0	11	1	6
Cotton, East India,.....	0	8	0	9	.....	
" other sorts,.....	0	10	1	0	1	0
Spices—Pepper and pimento,.....	6	7	7	6	8	4
" all other sorts,.....	7	2	8	0	8	0
Tallow,.....	0	3	1	2	1	7
Oil—whale, seal, and spermaceti,.....per ton	132	0	154	0	176	0
Indigo,.....per cwt.	4	2	4	7	4	7
Honey,.....	5	4	6	4	7	3
Lead,.....	0	2½	0	8½	0	8½
Quercitron,.....	0	10½	1	0	1	0
Rice—East India,.....	3	9	4	2	4	2
" other sorts,.....	4	7	5	1	5	1
Rosin,.....	0	4	0	6	0	6
Sugar,.....	0	9½	1	2	1	11
Tobacco, American,.....	5	4	5	10	5	10
Tea,.....	46	5	48	0	46	0
Pot ashes,.....	1	3	1	5	1	5

N. B.—1. The duties on these articles will be levied in full from the 21st July, 1845. In the interval, only one-half of the increase upon the present duty is applicable.

2. The present duty of 1d. per cwt. on sugar, imported by Belgian vessels from European ports, remains in force until the 1st January next, after which it will be raised every year 3½d. per cwt., until it reaches 1s. 3d. per cwt.

Vessels may call at an intermediate port for orders, and their cargoes be admitted as direct imports, till the 1st October, 1844, for those arriving from a port within the Straits of Gibraltar; till the 1st January, 1845, for those arriving from ports out of Europe, within the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn; till the 1st July, 1845, for those arriving from beyond the Capes.

After these dates, the faculty of calling for orders, but without privilege of sale, is confined, 1st, to Belgian vessels, and 2d, to foreign vessels, of which the cargo is for account of, or consigned direct to, houses established in Belgium; and when the bills of lading are made out to order, proof must be given by certificate of the Belgian consul, at the port of loading, on the captain's bill of lading, or manifest of such interest.

Vessels putting into an intermediate port, from stress of weather, must bring a certifi-

cate to that effect from the Belgian consul, to secure the benefit of direct importation. In absence of a Belgian consul, certificates may be taken from the consul of any friendly power.

The government are authorized to place foreign ships on the same footing as the Belgian, for the import of the produce or manufactures of their respective countries. Under this power, ships of the United States have been assimilated to Belgian, for import of American produce from the United States.

RIO DE JANEIRO DUTIES ON U. S. IMPORTS.

DUTIES ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT FROM THE UNITED STATES INTO RIO DE JANEIRO, AS PER NEW TARIFF, WHICH WENT INTO OPERATION NOVEMBER 11, 1844.

Articles.	Duty in currency.	Duty in dolls. and cts. Exchange, 25d.
Beeswax,	210 per lb.	10 51 per lb.
Beef,	4‖500 per bbl.	2 25 per bbl.
Bran,	250 per ar.*	05 per bush.
Butter,	120 per lb.	06 per lb.
Candles, sperm,	180 "	09 "
" composition,	200 "	10 "
" tallow,	075 "	3 75 "
Cheese,	120 "	06 "
Cigars,	15‖000 per M.	7 50 per M.
Cordage, Russia,	6‖000 per qtl.	2 24 per lb.
" Manilla,	7‖500 "	2 81 "
" Coiar,	4‖500 "	1 71 "
Domestics,	....	.....
Drills, brown,	058 per yard.	2 91 per yard.
" bleached,	068 "	3 41 "
" blue,	078 "	3 91 "
Denims,	078 "	3 91 "
Osnaburgs,	058 "	2 91 "
Shirtings,	040 "	02 "
" stripes,	078 "	3 91 "
Flour,	3‖000 per bbl.	1 50 per bbl.
Fire-crackers,	4‖800 per 100 bund.	2 40 per 100 bund.
Gunpowder,	180 per lb.	09 per lb.
Hams,	060 "	03 "
Hay,	180 arrobe.	28 per arrobe.
Ice,	1‖800 per ton.	90 per ton.
Lead, pig,	3‖000 per qtl.	1 14 per lb.
Lard,	047 per lb.	2 35 "
Lumber,	9‖500 per 1,000 ft.	4 75 per M.
Oars,	033 per foot.	1 65 per foot.
Pork,	6‖000 per bbl.	3 00 per bbl.
Pepper,	050 per lb.	2 51 per lb.
Oil, sperm,	425 per gallon.	21 25 per gallon.
" whale,	256 "	12 81 "
" linseed,	054 per lb.	20 "
Rosin,	1‖680 per bbl.	84 per bbl.
Salt,	160 per alq.	07 per bush.
Saltpetre,	1‖500 per arrobe.	2 34 per lb.
Soap,	040 per lb.	2 "
Spirits of turpentine,	085 "	30 per gallon.
Tea, of all kinds,	600 "	30 per lb.
Tobacco, of all kinds,	6‖000 per arrobe.	9 38 "
Wheat,	400 per alq.	17 per bush.
Water-crackers,	1‖000 per arrobe.	1 56 per lb.

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* Means 1 arrobe, containing 32 lbs.

TREATY OF BELGIUM AND THE ZOLL-VEREIN.

The Paris papers announce the ratification of the treaty between Belgium and the Zoll-verein, and publish the document at length. At the end of article 5, a separate clause has been inserted, and the 19th article has been modified. The separate article is to the following effect:—

"SEPARATE ARTICLE.—The cargoes of ships belonging to the Zoll-verein, imported into Belgium indirectly, and which are subject to the differential duties, and the Belgian ships importing into the ports belonging to the Zoll-verein cargoes shipped in a port not belonging to Belgium or the Zoll-verein, shall pay an extraordinary duty *de pavillon*, which shall not exceed half the actual amount of that duty. This stipulation shall remain in force till the 1st of January, 1848, and beyond that time during the existence of the treaty, if at that term one or other of the high contracting parties make no general change in his system of legislation in respect to navigation. In that case, the high contracting parties will arrange the stipulations of the first paragraph of the first article, with such modifications as may be introduced."

With regard to the last paragraph of article 19, it provides that in case the custom-house tariff of the Zoll-verein should be reduced, or if the duties on cast and wrought iron should be abolished altogether, the contracting parties shall arrange, at the time of making these reductions, the compensation to be given to Belgium. Nothing further is said in the French papers on the subject of the new duties laid on English goods introduced into Belgium. They are apparently satisfied with what they have got, and with the assurance that, although the exemption in favor of France is nominally only for one year, the Belgian government is determined that it shall be continued.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

MONONGAHELA RIVER IMPROVEMENT.

We find, in the Pittsburgh Gazette and Advertiser, a highly interesting statement from a committee of the citizens of Pittsburgh, Brownsville, and the intermediate country, on the occasion of the opening of the Monongahela Navigation Company's lately completed work. This new improvement has opened a steamboat navigation, which will continue throughout the year, except when interrupted by ice, from Brownsville to Pittsburgh. The railway extending from Baltimore to Cumberland, brings travellers by that very speedy and pleasant mode of locomotion within seventy miles of Brownsville, from which place they are taken to Pittsburgh, in fine steamboats. At Pittsburgh, of course, they have choice of other boats to any portion of the far west.

The merchants and business men, and indeed the citizens generally of Pittsburgh, have a right to congratulate themselves upon the successful completion of this noble enterprise; giving them, as it does, a means of powerful competition in the freighting business from Baltimore, with their neighbors of Wheeling. The receipt time, at present, for goods from Baltimore to Wheeling, is nine days; to Brownsville, five days. Add one day to Pittsburgh, and it leaves three days less to Pittsburgh than to Wheeling; so that goods can be taken from Baltimore, by the Monongahela improvement, to Louisville, sooner than they now go by wagon from Baltimore to Wheeling. The ordinary rates of carriage are—

Merchandise from Cumberland to Wheeling,.....per ton	$15 00
" " " to Brownsville,.....	9 00
Produce from Wheeling to Cumberland,.....	12 00
" Brownsville to Cumberland,.....	7 00

Western produce is receipted for from Pittsburgh, via Brownsville, to Baltimore, at 80 cents per hundred, or $16 per ton. The rates from Baltimore to Philadelphia are now 25 cents per 100 lbs.

SOUTH CAROLINA RAILROAD.

The following statement, originally prepared for the Charleston Courier, was taken from the books of the company. The prosperous condition of this great and important enterprise must be gratifying, indeed, not only to the stockholders, but to every citizen interested in the welfare of Charleston. There is every reason to believe that its income will go on increasing; and, from the fact that there can be no competition with them, of such a magnitude as to affect their business, and the disposition shown to keep the charge for freight at a reasonable rate, it is believed that the stock is destined to become as productive as any in the country.

1843.	Receipts.	1844.	Receipts.
July,.....	$14,726 26	July,.....	$19,488 80
August,.....	13,585 02	August,.....	21,447 07
September,.....	30,765 22	September,.....	41,103 13
October, ...	55,390 54	October,.....	70,451 05
November,.....	47,231 84		
December,.....	42,349 32		

1843—from July to October, inclusive,.....	$114,467 04
1844— " " "	152,339 00
	114,467 04
Gain in four months, on road,.....	$37,871 96
Income of the road, from July to October, 1844,.....	152,329 00
Allow that November and December, 1844, only equal the same months of 1843, and there is no doubt of their exceeding that amount in the same ratio as the four preceding months,.....	89,580 00
Add, for the bank dividend,.....	17,500 00
Contract for mail and other sources, $4,000 per month,.....	24,000 00
	$283 409 00
Six months' expenses, at $30,000 per month,.....	180,000 00
	$103,4[illegible]9 00
Thirty-four thousand shares, six months' dividend, at three,.....	102,000 00
Surplus,.....	$1,409 00

As far as November had been brought up, the past week, this year, has produced $14,157 39; the week corresponding, last year, was $11,353 12.

WEST INDIA STEAMERS.

The financial affairs of the West India Steam Company appear in a prosperous state. Agreeable to a recent statement of the directors, exhibiting the receipts and disbursements for the half year ending June 30, the receipts exceed those of a similar period, in last year, by £16,879 02.

Receipts from January 1 to June 30, 1844,.....	£174,927 16 8
" " " " 1843,.....	158,048 14 7

The above includes the government contract for mail service, of £120,000.

The disbursements, during the same period, were, in 1844,.....	$108,770 1 11
And in 6 months of 1843,.....	123,706 19 0
Excess of receipts over disbursements, 1844,.....	66,157 14 9
" " " " 1843,.....	34,341 15 7

It is contemplated to build another steamer for the conveyance of the mail between Jamaica, Carthagena, &c., heretofore carried by a sailing vessel. The directors announce that they have paid, since their last meeting, £20,000 of their debt, and intend paying off their loan of $50,000, borrowed in 1842.

RAILWAYS IN ENGLAND, ON THE CONTINENT, &c.

In Germany, at the present time, (1844,) there are 1,339 miles of railroad completed, 589 in the course of construction, and 3,096 projected. Germany has 152 miles of railway completed for every million of inhabitants; France, 16; Belgium, 50; England, 86; the United States, 222. Great Britain has 1,800 miles of railroad completed, that have cost $300,000,000; the United States, 4,000 miles—$125,000,000. France has only 560 miles completed. Several years have been lost to devise a plan for the government to afford aid to private corporations to construct and manage railways, they giving to the government the privilege to transport the mails, troops, and munitions of war, at fixed rates. On this plan, France will soon be covered with railways.

Russia, after her first success in a short road of 16 miles, is now constructing a road from St. Petersburg to Moscow, 400 miles long, superintended by American engineers, with Americans in her work-shops to learn her to make locomotives, cars, &c. Russia has also a work projected of 1,000 miles in length, to connect her capital with the Caspian and Black seas. The following is a view of the railways about to be constructed in the several states of Germany:—

	Miles.	To cost		Miles.	To cost
Austria,.....	770	£5,440,000	Brunswick,.....	81	£475,000
Bavaria,.....	228	1,656,000	Darmstadt,.....	70	730,000
Wurtemburg,.....	174	3,024,000			
Baden,.....	217	2,016,000	Total,.....	1,872	£14,995,000
Hanover,.....	272	1,650,000			

In enumerating these extended lines of railways on the continent, and in Great Britain, we do not read of a single new canal projected, or in the course of construction. Railways judiciously located, and constructed between desirable points, are sure to be safe investments.

In England, the late official returns show a falling off in the receipts of canals, side by side with railways, of from 33 to 66 per cent; while about this ratio of increase in freight has been added to railways. The canal property was worth £200, £300, and even as high, in one instance, as £1,200 per every £100 paid. Since the complete success of railways, to carry all classes of freight, this class of stocks have fallen, since then, 50 per cent on their former value; while the railways have steadily advanced in prices, and 2,000 miles of new railways are projected, at an estimated cost of $70,000,000. In England, the long lines pay 6 to 10 per cent dividends, as a whole—near 5 per cent per annum, on $300,000,000. New England has $26,000,000 invested in railways, that now netts 6 per cent. The whole line to Buffalo from Albany, 320 miles, costing about $7,000,000, netts 7 per cent. Yet, under this view, we have individuals in this state who would expend $25,000,000 more to enlarge the Erie canal, while less than half this sum would give us a complete double track, from Buffalo to New York, open all the year, and at rates of transportation as low as by the canal, if not lower. J. E. B.

PARIS AND LONDON RAILWAYS.

The establishment of the railroads from London to Portsmouth, from London to Dover, and from Paris to Rouen, have facilitated the communication between the two greatest capitals of Europe. But the journey has not yet been rendered so short, and so easy of accomplishment, as might have been anticipated. At length, however, a grant has been made by the French government, to a private company, of the privilege of establishing a railroad from Amiens to Boulogne, which will, when completed, probably constitute the shortest and most frequented route of communication between these two capitals. On the 16th of October, the privilege of constructing a railroad on this route was adjudged to Messrs. Charles Lafitte, Blount & Co., for a term of 98 years and 11 months.

This company is not to enjoy the benefit of having the cost of grading, and of the works of art, defrayed by the government. The whole work is to be done at the expense of the company. It is thought, nevertheless, that the amount of travelling between these two great cities will be such as to insure a liberal profit to the company. The Paris Journal des Debats, in speaking of this enterprise, remarks that "it is no exaggeration to say that the cause of civilization in general will derive a great benefit from it. By means of this railroad, the two great centres of knowledge, of the arts, and of liberty, will be brought within twelve hours' travel of one another. Within the space of three years, in all probability, it will be made easy, by means of this railroad, to make the journey from Paris to London between the rising and setting of the sun, during a great part of the year."

RAILROAD TAXATION IN ENGLAND.

It is stated, in the London Railway Times, that the gross receipts on 2,000 miles of English railway, for 1843, were £7,002,004; the working expenses, £2,222,924; the government duty paid, £191,081; interest on loans, &c., £1,070,000; local rates and taxes, £156,900; forming a total expenditure (estimated) of £3,023,824; leaving only £3,111,000, (upon an invested capital of 80 to 100 millions,) for "dividend," and subject to income-tax, &c. Taking ten acres to a mile of railway, those 2,000 miles would give 20,000 acres of land; which, as land, would be assessed at £14,000, paying a rate of £4,000; but which, as railway, is assessed at £780,000, at least, paying £156,000 a year rates; and that amount is fast increasing. Irish, Scotch, Welsh, and continental railways, and English canals, &c., are exempt from this principle and burden of taxation. Besides these contributions, those 2,000 miles of railway pay income-tax £90,000, besides land-tax, tithe-assessed taxes, &c.; and their property is assessed, for the purposes of taxation, at 48 times its legitimate amount, which is gradually increasing; and that assessment forms the guide for railway contribution to the 12 millions of yearly local taxation, the 5 millions of tithe, the 1¼ million of land-tax, besides the assessed taxes, sewers, and state taxes.

INCOME OF THE MOHAWK AND HUDSON RAILROAD.

The following is a comparative table of the earnings of the Mohawk and Hudson railroad, for the years ending October 31, 1843 and 1844:—

1842—November,	$5,039 25	1843—November,	$6,047 42
December,	2,350 74	December,	3,918 02
1844—January,	1,905 51	1844—January,	2,029 80
February,	1,469 49	February,	2,552 31
March,	1,609 62	March,	3,300 92
April,	4,677 43	April,	7,665 12
May,	6,447 06	May,	6,583 27
June,	5,050 87	June,	6,432 05
July,	6,568 97	July,	7,915 39
August,	7,565 90	August,	9,609 58
September,	5,233 52	September,	8,888 31
October,	6,791 31	October,	9,075 39
Total,	$54,700 67	Total,	$74,018 08
			54,700 67
Excess in favor of 1844,			$19,317 41
The receipts for the two weeks ending Nov. 14, were			$2,943 61
Same time last year,			2,802 00
Excess in favor of 1844,			141 61

OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS,

IN EACH YEAR, FROM 1824 TO 1844.

The business of the canals of New York closed about the 28th of November. By the use of ice-breakers, portions of the canal were kept open, however, a few days longer, to enable boats in the vicinity to reach their winter-quarters. The following table will show the commencement and close of navigation for each year, since 1824:—

Year.	Commence-ment.	Close.	No. of days.	Year.	Commence-ment.	Close.	No. days.
1824,.....	April 30	Dec. 4	219	1835,.....	April 17	Nov. 30	230
1825,.....	" 12	" 5	238	1836,.....	" 25	" 26	216
1826,.....	" 20	" 18	243	1837,.....	" 20	Dec. 9	234
1827,.....	" 22	" 18	241	1838,.....	" 12	Nov. 25	228
1828,.....	Mar. 27	" 20	269	1839,.....	" 20	Dec. 16	228
1829,.....	May 2	" 17	230	1840,.....	" 20	" 3	215
1830,.....	April 20	" 17.	242	1841,.....	" 26	Nov. 24	218
1831,.....	" 16	" 1	230	1842,.....	" 20	" 23	215
1832,.....	" 25	" 21	241	1843,.....	May 1	Dec. 1	214
1833,.....	" 19	" 12	238	1844,.....	April 18	Nov. 28 pro.	224
1834,.....	" 17	" 12	240				

INCREASE OF RAILROAD TRAVEL.

The receipts on ten of the following works, to the 1st September, shows an increase of $800,357. The receipts on all the public and private works—railways, canals, and turnpikes—in the different states, in 1844, compared with 1843, will present an increase of four millions of dollars, or an enhanced value of eighty millions of dollars, calculated on an interest of 5 per cent.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
Utica and Schenectady,.....	$155,044	$179,078	$24,034
Tonawanda, to August,.....	27,033	52,022	24,988
Buffalo and Attica, August,.....	20,929	34,179	13,250
Norwich and Worcester,.....	91,911	140,060	58,149
Western Railroad,.....	346,556	460,677	114,121
New York Canals, ...	858,445	1,137,717	279,272
Pennsylvania,.....	578,879	714,801	140,922
Reading Railroad,.....	232,637	365,004	132,367
Southern Railroad,.....	1,452	4,364	2,911
Hartford and New Haven Railroad,..	89,288	99,632	10,343

These various lines all show a very favorable state of things, and clearly demonstrate that, for investment, railroad shares are as profitable as bank shares, and but little short of manufacturing stocks.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS OF OHIO.

Ohio seems to be participating most abundantly in the prosperity of public works. The following is a statement of income for two years, ending the middle of May:—

	1842–43.	1843–44.
Ohio Canal,.....	$47,480 76	$94,530 04
Medina,.....	28,873 15	43,446 82
Medina Ex., (unfin., will be compl. this year,)	2,754 61	5,253 27
Wabash and Erie,.....	948 39	12,812 23
Hocking,.....	660 16	1,692 12
Walhonding,.....	105 63	584 23
Muskingum Improvement,.....	7,904 78	14,340 70
	$88,729 48	$172,659 41
		88,729 48
Increase in 1844,.....		$83,929 93

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

BALANCE OF UNITED STATES COMMERCE.

BALANCE OF TRADE FOR AND AGAINST THE U. STATES, WITH EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, IN 1843.

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, for the nine months commencing 1st October, 1842, and terminating 30th of June, 1843; showing the amount of exports and imports to and from each foreign country, and the balance of trade for and against the United States, with each of those countries.

Countries.	Value of Exports. Domestic produce. *Dollars.*	Foreign produce. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	Val. of imports. *Dollars.*	Balance in favor of U. S. *Dollars.*	Balance against of U. S. *Dollars.*
Russia,	309,867	76,926	386,793	$742,803	.....	$356,010
Prussia,	222,039	18,330	240,369	.....	$240,369	.....
Sweden and depen.,	49,609	18,153	67,762	278,674	.....	210,912
Denmark and dep.,	746,815	81,050	827,865	485,285	342,580	.....
Holland and depen.,	2,018,183	352,701	2,370,884	815,451	1,555,433	.....
Belgium,	1,674,224	296,485	1,970,709	171,695	1,799,014	.....
Hanse Towns,	2,898,948	392,984	3,291,932	920,865	2,371,067	.....
England and depen.,	45,428,811	1,473,024	46,901,833	28,978,582	17,923,253	.....
France and depen.,	11,931,066	538,387	12,472,453	7,836,137	4,636,316	.....
Hayti,	610,796	42,574	653,370	898,447	.....	245,077
Spain and depen.,	3,483,898	469,796	3,953,694	6,980,504	.....	3,026,810
Portugal and depen.,	157,541	10,993	168,534	71,369	97,165	.....
Italy, Sicily and Sardinia,	682,149	238,592	920,741	564,228	356,513	.....
Trieste,	460,240	118,938	579,178	72,957	506,221	.....
Turkey,	108,465	68,014	176,479	182,854	.....	6,375
Texas,	105,240	37,713	142,953	445,399	.....	302,446
Mexico,	907,745	564,192	1,471,937	2,782,406	.....	1,310,469
Central America,	34,469	18,497	52,966	132,167	.....	79,201
Venezuela,	483,077	100,425	583,502	1,191,280	.....	607,778
New Granada,	72,009	89,944	161,953	115,733	46,220	.....
Brazil,	1,568,584	223,704	1,792,288	3,947,658	.....	2,155,370
Argentine Republic,	168,083	94,026	262,109	793,488	.....	531,379
Cisplatine Republic,	219,576	75,549	295,125	121,753	173,372	.....
Chili,	869,883	179,580	1,049,463	857,556	191,907	.....
Peru,	.....	.....	.....	135,563	.....	135,563
S. America, gen'lly,	98,713	.....	98,713	.....	98,713	.....
China,	1,755,393	663,565	2,418,958	4,385,566	.....	1,966,608
Europe, generally,	36,066	140	36,206	.....	36,206	.....
Asia, generally,	253,861	267,296	521,157	445,637	75,520	.....
Africa, generally,	281,060	22,189	303,249	353,274	.....	50,025
W. Indies, gen'rally,	95,412	125	95,537	.....	95,537	.....
South Seas,	58,961	18,805	77,766	45,845	31,921	.....
Uncertain places,	.....	.....	.....	623	.....	623
Total,	77,793,783	6,552,697	84,346,480	64,753,799	30,577,327	10,984,646

Total exports,	$84,346,480	Balances in favor of U. S.,	$30,577,327
" imports,	64,753,799	" against U. S.,	10,984,646
Total,	$19,592,681	Total,	$19,592,681

STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN FISHERIES.

The following statistics of this important branch of American commerce, says the National Intelligencer, will be acceptable to all readers who take an interest in the rise and progress of the great sources of national wealth and greatness. And first, as to the mackerel fishery in Massachusetts. The quantity inspected was—

In 1804,.....bbls.	8,079½	In 1819,.....bbls.	105,433
1807,.....	10,904½	1830,.....	308,462
1813,.....	3,822½	1832,.....	382,000
1814,.....	1,349	1841,.....	56,000
1816,.....	30,021	1842,.....	76,000
1818,.....	47,210		

The quantity of fish caught, and smoked and dried in the United States, in 1840, was 773,947 quintals, of 112 pounds weight each, and of pickled fish 472,359½ barrels.

The quantity of fish caught, and smoked and dried in Massachusetts, in 1840, was 389,715 quintals, and of pickled fish 124,755 barrels.

The fish caught, and smoked and dried in Maine, in 1840, was 279,156 quintals, and of pickled fish 24,071 barrels.

The fish caught, and smoked and dried in New Hampshire, in 1840, was 28,257 quintals, and of pickled fish, 1,714½ barrels.

Mackerel are caught with a line and hook. A writer in the North American Review, in No. 120, page 75, says—

"We have heard more than one fisherman say that he had caught sixty mackerel in a minute! Certain it is, that some active young men will haul in and jerk off a fish, and throw out the line for another, with a single motion, and repeat the act in so rapid succession, that their arms seem to be continually on the swing."

Mackerel are caught off the coast of Nova Scotia with seine nets, and eight hundred barrels have been caught by one seine, at a single haul.

The Newfoundland fishery was commenced in 1504, by vessels from Biscay, Bretagne, and Normandy, in France. Its increase was rapid. In 1517, it employed 50 vessels, of different European nations—in 1577, the number was 350. Bancroft says that, in 1578, "400 vessels came annually from Portugal, Spain, France, and England." In 1603, there were 200 vessels engaged in it; and, including the shoremen, or curers, 10,000 men. The value of dried codfish, and of pickled herring, shad, salmon, and mackerel, exported during the nine months ending with the 30th of September last, was $491,217. Cuba, Hayti, and the other islands of the West Indies, are our principal customers for these articles.

In connection with this subject, the herring fishery, though not exclusively an American fishery, furnishes the following statements:—

"It is said, by writers of authority, that, in 1560, the Dutch employed 1,000 vessels in the herring fishery; that the number in 1610 was 1,500, and that in 1620 it was 2,000. These estimates are regarded, however, as extravagant. But what shall be said of Sir Walter Raleigh, who fixed the annual value of the fishery at ten millions sterling; or De Witt, who said that every fiftieth person earned his subsistence by it? Yet such statements were believed at the time they were made, and their correctness is contended for now."—(North American Review, p. 82.)

Whale Fisheries of the United States.

The imports of these fisheries into the United States, for the year 1843, are thus stated in the Boston Daily Advertiser:—

"Ships and barques, 193; brigs, 23; schooners, 13; making a total tonnage of 67,893 tons. These vessels brought in 165,744 barrels of sperm oil, 205,851 barrels of whale oil, and 1,968,047 pounds of bone."

The exports of spermaceti and whale oil, and whalebone, for the nine months ending on the 30th day of June, 1843, was in value $1,372,022, and $243,308 in spermaceti candles. The Hanse Towns and Holland are our best customers for whale oil, but England takes nearly all our sperm exported.

The first regular attempt to engage in the whaling business, in this country, was about the year 1672. The English, French, and Dutch, were before that time largely engaged in it. In 1672, the town of Nantucket formed a co-partnership with James Lesser, for

carrying on the traffic, which was done by means of boats from the shore, the whales then being numerous in the neighborhood of the island. The first sperm whale was taken in 1712, by Christopher Hussey, a Nantucket whaleman, who was blown off shore while cruising for "right whales." From this commencement, the business increased; and in 1715, Nantucket had six vessels of thirty to forty tons burden, engaged in this business, yielding about $5,000 per annum. From this small beginning, the traffic has grown to its present paramount importance among the various branches of American industry.

Mr. Grinnell, a member of Congress from New Bedford, stated, during the last session, that our whaling fleet now consists of 650 ships, &c., tonnaging 200,000 tons; which costs, at the time of sailing, $20,000,000, and are manned by 17,000 officers and seamen, one-half of which are green hands when the vessels sail. The value of the annual import of oil and whalebone, in a crude state, is $7,000,000; when manufactured, it is increased in value to $8,000,000, or $9,000,000. Taking the entire amount of exports at $2,000,000, there will be from six to seven millions to be consumed at home. Mr. Grinnell adds:—

"Although this interest is not directly protected by the tariff of 1842, as its products are cheaper in this country than in any other, yet those concerned in it are decidedly in favor of the protective policy. They have found, by experience, that when the manufacturers and mechanics of the country are actively employed, they can sell their products at fair prices; and that when duties have been low, and almost without discrimination in favor of such articles as are made in this country, it has been difficult to make sales even at low prices. They are in favor of the protective policy, notwithstanding that the duties on each whale ship and outfits, of 350 tons, amount to $1,700. They find themselves fully compensated by the home market.

"This fleet of whaling ships," says Mr. G., "is larger than ever pursued the business before. Commercial history furnishes no account of any parallel. Our ships now outnumber those of all other nations combined, and the proceeds of its enterprise are in proportion, and diffused to every part of our country. The voyages of those engaged in the sperm fishery average three and a half years; they search every sea, and often cruise three and four months, with a man at each mast-head on the look-out, without the cheering sight of a whale."

Governor Briggs, in his inaugural speech, on the 10th January, 1844, says that Massachusetts has $12,000,000, and 16,000 men, engaged in the fisheries; (we presume he means home fisheries and the whale fisheries together,) and that her share therein is twice as great as that of all the other states of the Union.

BRITISH COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

From an official statement, recently made, of the exports and imports of Great Britain to the different parts of the world, for the year 1843, some important facts may be gathered, to which we would direct attention. In the trade between Britain and her colonies in the western world, about 60,000 seamen are yearly employed. The amount of wages, and cost of provisions for these, cannot be less than 3,600,000*l.* per annum; and the repairs, insurance, and replacing of capital in the ships, 4,500,000*l.* more. In the trade between Britain and India, and China, 10,000 seamen are employed at a similar rate. Their wages, provisions, &c., will amount to 500,000*l.*; and the replacement of capital, and insurance, to 840,000*l.*; in all, 1,340,000*l.* The whole, or very nearly the whole, of the supplies necessary to maintain these seamen and tonnage, are the productions of British soil and labor; and this, in a national point of view, shows the superiority of such a trade a merely manufacturing commerce. A comparison of the trade of the eastern with that of the western world, taking the value of imports and exports, stands nearly thus:—From and to British North America and the West Indian colonies, 14,000,000*l.*; and from and to China and the East Indies, about 16,000,000*l.* It thus appears that the former commerce requires nearly five times more ships, tonnage, and seamen, to carry it on, than the

latter; thereby affording an incalculable advantage to a naval power, and the support of a naval force, and also to the employment of British agricultural labor and capital. It appears that the weight of cotton yarn and goods exported from England annually, is 120,000 tons; and the value in round numbers being 23,500,000*l.*, it follows that one-half the tonnage employed in carrying the West Indian exports, (viz: 2,882,441*l.*,) would be sufficient to carry the whole cotton export trade of the country; and, as regards the North American trade, one-seventh of the tonnage would be sufficient. While the trade with the West Indies and British North America, (in exports and imports about 14,000,000*l.* yearly,) employs 2,900 ships, 970,000 tons, that with the United States, (in exports and imports 22,000,000*l.*,) gives employment to 350 ships, 233,000 tons. The imports from China are valued at about 5,000,000*l.*, brought in 84 ships, about 39,712 tons.

FRENCH IMPORTS OF COTTON, SUGAR, AND COFFEE.

Comparative Imports and Sales of Cotton, Sugar, and Coffee, for the first six months of the last ten years, with the Stocks on 1st of January and 30th of June, each year.

Years.	Cotton.		Sugar.		Coffee.	
	Imports. *Bales.*	Sales. *Bales.*	Imports. *Barriq.*	Sales. *Barriq.*	Imports. *d. kil.*	Sales. *d. kil.*
1844,.....	185,125	145,525	11,700	25,500	4,500,000	3,000,000
1843,.....	234,257	189,357	16,550	15,550	9,900,000	8,700,000
1842,.....	262,274	187,874	24,050	19,850	200,000	300,000
1841,.....	237,052	152,552	21,600	15,600	7,770,000	6,320,000
1840,.....	266,848	201,848	26,330	24,330	4,150,000	650,000
1839,.....	182,730	86,530	20,860	20,860	8,600,000	7,000,000
1838,.....	206,055	162,755	24,033	15,533	830,000	7,984,000
1837,.....	176,840	138,340	15,628	16,128	2,243,000	276,000
1836,.....	181,405	146,205	21,936	21,938	336,000	8,536,000
1835,.....	150,139	115,339	24,380	20,880	9,300,000	8,300,000

CANAL COMMERCE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

ARRIVALS AT, AND EXPORTS FROM, PITTSBURGH.

During the year commencing December 1st, 1843, and ending November 30th, 1844, the exports of the following articles, by canal, into Pittsburgh, were—

Dry-goods,.....	lbs.	24,133,173	Tobacco,.....	lbs.	763,465
Muslin,.....		5,625,146	Leather,.....		415,775
Coffee,.....		9,092,807	Hemp,.....		388,663
Hardware,.....		8,417,359	Furniture,.....		1,049,718
Queensware,.....		4,565,005	Gypsum, &c.,.....		1,562,807
Groceries,.....		5,108,266	Copper and tin,.....		765,399
Drugs,.....		1,721,778	Marble,.....		391,419
Iron and nails,.....		3,583,235	Glassware,.....		57,988
Blooms,.....		18,824,166	Salt,.....	bbls.	41,295
Pig metal,.....		5,994,722	Sundries,.....	lbs.	485,142

The exports eastward, by canal, during the same period, were—

Flour,.....	bbls.	110,452	Whiskey,.....	galls.	77,591
Seeds,.....	lbs.	177,561	Groceries,.....	lbs.	1,379,780
Bacon,.....		19,105,805	Merchandise,.....		324,318
Beef,.....	bbls.	75,099	Drugs,.....		80,634
Pork,.....		26,531	Furniture,.....		250,744
Lard and tallow,.....	lbs.	2,666,039	Window glass,.....	boxes	3,099
Cheese and butter,.....		1,645,472	Bags,.....	lbs.	669,742
Wool,.....		3,166,969	Iron and nails,.....		500,480
Cotton,.....		1,125,746	Pigs and casts,.....		2,646,167
Hemp,.....		881,961	Coffee,.....		90,722
Tobacco,.....		17,303,415	Agricultural produce,.....		849,374
Leather,.....		69,791	Hardware,.....		159,171
Hides,.....		492,684	Sundries,.....		597,539
Furs,.....		103,007			

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SAILING DIRECTIONS FOR THE ISLAND OF ICHABOE.

The following directions for vessels approaching the island of Ichaboe, sometimes called "Guano island," situated on the southwest coast of Africa, were transmitted to the Department of State by the United States consul at Rio de Janeiro, and are published officially in the "Madisonian," under date of Washington, November 21st, 1844, for the information of those whom they may concern.

The consul states that the island is situated about three miles from the main land; is difficult of approach; of bold, rocky shore, without any harbor, and exposed to heavy surf and frequent fogs. It is but a little more than a mile in circumference, without soil, or the least sign of vegetation, and covered with guano to the depth of twenty to thirty feet. The birds that inhabit it are a species of penguin, their wings being a kind of fin, which enables them to fly but a short distance. They are said to be so numerous and tame, that it is difficult to walk about the island without treading upon them. That part of the continent near to which the island is situated is also barren, and destitute of fresh water. It seldom rains in that latitude, and vessels approaching the coast, during high winds from off shore, will often be covered with sand, at the distance of fifty or even a hundred miles from the land.

DIRECTIONS FOR APPROACHING THE ISLAND OF ICHABOE, ON THE SOUTHWEST COAST OF AFRICA

On making the land off Pedestal Point, to the west of Angra Pequena, which lies in lat. 26 deg. 38 min. S., and long. 15 deg. 2 min. 30 sec. E. from Greenwich, sail nine leagues north, quarter west, keeping about three miles from the main land, when the small island of Ichaboe will come in sight, lying in latitude 26 deg. 17 min. S., long. 14 deg. 48 min. E. If possible, the south channel should be taken on going in, as it is the safest and best, there being no danger to be apprehended but which is visible, or laid down in the chart; but, if too far to leeward, the north channel may be entered by working up, care being taken not to approach too near the main land; as, equi-distant from the main land and the island, there is a sunken rock, as shown on the chart, having about two and a half feet of water over it at low tide, without any ripple by which it may be discovered. It is important that Angra Pequena be made the first landfull. If too far to leeward of the island, there is much difficulty in getting to windward, as the winds blow mostly from S. S. W., and seldom from any other quarter. If close to the island on the approach of a fog, stand out to sea, as fogs come on suddenly, and generally last about two days, during which time there is no wind to carry a vessel clear of the island. A heavy surf, breaking upon a bold rocky shore, renders the fogs extremely dangerous. Spring tides rise seven feet.

REEFS AND BUOYS OF DENMARK.

The following information has been communicated to the Department of State by the Charge d'Affaires of the United States at Copenhagen, Denmark, and is translated and officially published, under date of Department of State, Washington, Dec. 3d, 1844, for the benefit of mariners:—

"For the purpose of marking the reef projecting from 'the Skaw' point, a beacon-buoy was some time since laid down at its northeastern extremity, in four and a half fathoms water, in direction west by south of the light-house and the old church steeple, both in a line, and furnished with three brooms.

"In addition to the foregoing, another beacon-buoy has now been laid down at the south-eastern extremity of the reef, in four fathoms water, the light-house bearing northwest, and the old Skrager church steeple west. This beacon-buoy is provided with but two broom, and will, like the former, be out during the winter; and, should the ice carry it away, it will be replaced by another, as early as practicable.

LIGHTS AND LIGHT-HOUSES OF FRANCE.

We are informed by T. Pequent, French consul, *pro tem.*, residing at Philadelphia, that the Administration of the Bridges and Ways in France publishes annually a table, descriptive of the light-houses and lights on the coasts of that country, in order to keep navigators acquainted with the additions and modifications which the maritime lights are continually receiving. Captains of vessels will be able to obtain the necessary intelligence on this subject from the documents recently distributed among the consuls. These documents communicate the changes and additions which have taken place up to the 1st of July, 1844, in the light-houses and lights that are placed on the coasts of France.

WHALERS AND TRADERS TO HONOLULU.

Vessels approaching Honolulu, and desiring a pilot, will set their national ensign and pilot-signal, on which he will go off immediately. Unless this rule is complied with, no attention will be paid by the pilot to the signals of vessels. The following are the port and harbor dues at Lahaina, Maui:—

Anchorage and pilotage,	$10 00
Light-house,	1 00
Clearance,	1 00
Canal,	3 00
Watering ship,* (cash, $2 50, one piece of cloth, $3 50,)	6 00
Total,	$21 00

REVOLVING LIGHT ON THE ROCK OF LISBON.

The following notice to navigators has been received at Lloyd's, (London, Eng.,) from the Hydrographic Office, Admiralty, dated Oct. 25th, 1844:—

"The Portuguese government has given notice that the light on Capa de Roca, on the rock of Lisbon, has been altered from a fixed to a revolving light, each revolution being completed in two minutes. During the first minute, it will present a red light, the greatest intensity of which will continue thirty seconds; and during the second minute it will present a bright light of the greatest brilliancy, and which will also continue thirty seconds. The light is in lat. 38. 46. 5. N., and lon. 9. 29. 0. W., and being 495 feet above the level of the sea, may be seen, in very clear weather, at the distance of eight or nine leagues.

BUOY AT THE HARBOR OF ST. AUGUSTINE.

A. W. Walker, collector of the port of St. Augustine, under date of November 20th, gives notice that, through a change in the channel, the outer buoy at the entrance of the harbor of St. Augustine now lies about 125 yards north of said entrance. The two inner buoys remain in the channel.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON MORO CASTLE.

The authorities of Havana have concluded a contract for the construction of a magnificent revolving lantern, for the new light-house building over the Moro castle. It is to be placed on the tower, which is already raised 100 feet above the level of the sea, by the 1st December. The light will be made to revolve every thirty seconds.

* The natives will take the casks on the beach, fill, raft, and return them, for the above sum.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE BENEFICIAL SOCIETY OF PHILADELPHIA.

THE appearance of the last annual report of this association, in one of the Philadelphia papers, induced us to address a letter to Mr. A. T. Chur, the secretary, for the purpose of procuring some account of its history and character, in order to lay it before our merchants generally, in the hope that, if calculated to advance the objects which its name would seem to indicate, it would lead to the establishment of similar associations in all our large commercial cities. The information we sought has been politely communicated to us, as will be seen by the following letter of Mr. Chur, in answer to our inquiries:—

Philadelphia, December 17, 1844.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq., Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Dear Sir—Your note of the 4th inst. reached me but yesterday morning, and I hasten to give you the information asked for.

In the spring of 1842, the necessity and feasibility of an association of mercantile men, having for its object the rendering of pecuniary aid to such of the profession as might be unfortunate in their business affairs, was suggested to the mind of Mr. Thomas F. Brady, of this city, by the prostration of a friend, then in business, from prosperity to comparative destitution, by a succession of those unfortunate vicissitudes to which the mercantile profession is so often subjected. Feeling deeply interested in the subject, he communicated his views to a few acquaintances, with whose aid the names of upwards of sixty merchants and clerks were procured, as a preliminary start to the project; and, at a preparatory meeting of these gentlemen, held April 29, 1842, a committee was appointed to draft a constitution and by-laws for the effectual organization of the society; and with the adoption of these, on May 6th following, the Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia made its bow to the public; to the mercantile portion of which it confidently appealed for the aid necessary to place it in a condition honorable to its projectors, worthy of the support of the class to whom it addressed itself, and applicable to the ends for which it was instituted. Its appeal was not in vain. Upwards of four hundred members are enrolled on its list; and the confidence and support of the mercantile community will, it is believed, keep pace with its usefulness.

The objects of the association—as will be seen from the constitution and by-laws, copies of which are herewith submitted—are two-fold. First, to grant pecuniary aid to its suffering members; and second, to render advice and assistance to those seeking employment as clerks, &c. No heavy demand upon the treasury of the society has yet been made; nor, in its state of infancy, could such have been granted—but the cases for proper relief, which have been presented to the committee, have been silently and unostentatiously, but promptly, attended to. The registry of houses wanting clerks, and of clerks in quest of situations, has not yet been carried out to the extent contemplated; but when the society shall have augmented its means, by subscriptions and donations, sufficient to warrant the outlay, it is expected that a permanent and eligible office will be opened, with the necessary books of registry, and an attendant, to carry out that part of the society's designs. There the young man, with his credentials, will be met by friendly advisers; and the seeker after useful employment be put in the way most likely to attain his object.

In the election of members and managers, strict regard is had to commercial honor and integrity; and in the distribution of the society's means—pecuniary and otherwise—care is taken that the applicant is, in every respect, worthy. The idle and improvident have no claim to its benefits; and the aid extended is not flung as a pittance to a beggar, but is considered as the right of the unfortunate brother who asks it.

In the language of the preamble to our constitution, our association has in view "the promotion of friendship and brotherly affection amongst its members; the distribution, under proper regulations, of pecuniary aid to such of them as may at any time stand in need of it; the pleasant interchange of kind feelings and views between the elder and younger members, whether as merchants or clerks, employers or employed; and the incidental elevation of the mercantile character of our city and state."

You are at liberty to make such use of these remarks as may be most agreeable; and be assured that the establishment of similar societies, in New York and elsewhere, will be hailed with pleasure by the members of the Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia.

Very truly yours, A. T. CHUR.

"The Mercantile Beneficial Association of Philadelphia," for the better accomplishment of their benevolent objects, have been constituted a body politic and corporate, by the legislature of Pennsylvania; and under that name are "to have perpetual succession, and be forever capable in law to take, hold, and sell real estate, in fee simple or otherwise, and to mortgage and let the same;" including all the usual privileges of such associations. The government of the society embraces a president, treasurer, secretary, three physicians, three counsellors, and a board of managers; which, with the president, treasurer, and secretary, consists of twenty merchants. There is also a standing Committee of Ways and Means, a Registry Committee, and a Relief Committee. One dollar is paid as the initiation fee, and each member is required to pay into the treasury of the society three dollars per annum. A member paying twenty dollars at one time, is considered a member for ten years thereafter, (unless expelled for unworthy conduct,) and is exempted from paying the annual contributions. Life members pay thirty dollars. It requires a vote of two-thirds to expel a member, becoming, by bad conduct, unworthy of belonging to the association.

We notice, among the long list of members, the names of many of the leading merchants of Philadelphia. We earnestly hope that the liberal and philanthropic merchants of New York, and indeed of all our principal cities, will take measures for the formation of associations so admirably adapted to promote the spirit of brotherhood in a mercantile community.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF LOUISVILLE.

FOURTH SEMI-ANNUAL REPORT.

We have received from S. S. Buckler, the President of this excellent, well-managed institution, the fourth semi-annual report, made December 2, 1844. It is a comprehensive, business-like paper. The Board of Directors refer, with feelings of great satisfaction, to the improved condition of the association, and to the flattering prospects of a more enlarged and acknowledged usefulness; and then proceed to a brief statement of its condition and improvement, as all that the occasion seems to demand, for the practical purpose of suggesting to the mind of every member the duty which he owes to the association and to society, to advance its interests and honor to the best of his ability. It appears, from the report, that at the annual period of the report in June, the members, life-members, and subscribers, numbered..... 199
Since that time, the record shows an increase of..... 90

Making the present number of members and subscribers..... 289

composed as follows:—Of members, 174; life-members, 28; subscribers, 80; and ladies, 7. The price of subscription, to members and subscribers, has been made uniform; and one dollar quarterly, and one dollar initiation, is now the cost of admission to the privileges of the library and reading-room.

The library is steadily increasing. One hundred and sixty-two volumes of new and valuable works have been added since the last report, and arrangements have been made with a house in New York for the importation of books free of duty, which will insure monthly arrivals of new publications. The library contains 3,400 volumes. The number of volumes recorded as having been in the hands of readers since the 6th of June, is 2,260. The number of volumes now in the hands of readers is 304. Preparations were making for a course of literary and scientific lectures, to commence on the third Monday of December; and the directors have assurances that justify the expectation of a brilliant and popular display of learning and talents.

It only remains to present the condition of the treasury, to show the progress of the association, its present resources, and future prospects:—

The annual report in June exhibited a balance in the treasury, of.....		$382 27
Received since that date, from quarterly dues,.....		587 01
Making the sum of.....		$969 28
Current expenses for the last six months,.....	$332 63	
Expended for books,.....	316 00	
		648 63
Leaving a balance of.....		$320 65
Uncollected dues from rent,.....	$45 00	
Remitted to New York, for the purchase of books,.....	99 46	
		144 46
Making a balance in the treasury of.....		$465 11

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE, BY RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

In my remarks on this subject, in your last number, (page 543,) in treating of the capacity of the Schuylkill canal, there is a cypher too much—it should be 700,000 tons, instead of 7,000,000 tons. The word engine *rivers* should be *drivers;* a term now used to distinguish the person formerly called an engineer—the operative, who manages the locomotive engine.

I omitted, in speaking of the Schuylkill Valley as one of the great outlets for hard coal to the Delaware canal and river, and to connect with New York through New Jersey, to state that about one-third of the supply of hard coal came through the Lehigh canal. I should have mentioned, also, the *tide-water canal,* along the Susquehanna, to supply Baltimore and Philadelphia, through the Chesapeake and Delaware canal. About 80,000 tons came through this channel the last year. This will make the total supply of hard coal carried from the mines to tide-water, up to 1st January, 1845, equal to 1,525,000. The Pottsville and Reading railroad continues to transport 2,000 tons daily. This quantity will be increased, on procuring a further supply of sheet-iron cars. J. E. B.

GROCERY BUSINESS IN NEW YORK.

The following is an extract from a young English clerk, who emigrated a short time since to this country, to his employers in England. It was published in the London Gazette, of October 29, 1844, and will perhaps be interesting to our readers, as an English account of the grocery business in New York:—

"The grocery trade is among the best in this city; and, with a few hundred pounds, an extensive business can be done. Merchandise, from the small duty imposed on it, is uncommonly cheap. Sugar, such as the fine Jamaica you used to have, sells at 4d.; tea, 2s. to 3s. for young hyson; coffee, from 3½d. to 7d. per lb., and everything else proportionably cheap. A working-man here lives like a gentleman, and every table is loaded with all the delicacies of the season. Fruit is a great article of commerce for a grocer in New York. In the morning, he gets up at five o'clock, and sets off with his wagon to the wharf, where all the steamboats arrive, loaded with fruit of every description. He goes through amongst the sellers, and makes his bargains; comes home with his wagon load, and is not long in getting it all disposed of, when he sets off for the fruit-market for another load. On Saturdays, Mr. —— always goes three times. You may think this a very strange trade for a grocer, but then it is a very lucrative one, and the good folks here care not what they traffic in if they can make a profit by it. Sometimes we sell at three-fourths profit, very often a half, and seldom less than one-third. As regards the retailing of groceries, the customers purchase quite differently from those in Scotland. They buy tea in no less quantities than a quarter, half, or pound parcels; sugar, in one cwt., half cwt., stone, half stone, and quarter stone weight. There is no trifling of time with pennyworths of tea, and pennyworths of sugar, butter, coffee, &c.

THE INFLUENCE OF FREE COMMERCE,

BETWEEN CHINA AND THE REST OF THE CIVILIZED WORLD.

The following, from the Memoirs and Correspondence of Francis Horner, M. P., is at this time both curious and interesting:—

"I went to the Speculative Society this evening, where I heard a very indifferent discussion of one of the most interesting subjects which can engage the attention of a political philosopher—the consequence of a free commerce and intercourse between China and the rest of the civilized world being unfolded to the curiosity and the observation of European science. The discovery which Columbus achieved, hitherto the most magnificent event in the revolutions of the globe, suffers immensely in the comparison. That world which he found at the Western extremity of the Atlantic, was thinly peopled by scattered families of naked barbarians; who except in one or two spots, were in the earliest infancy of the political order. But that the world which is detached from Europe by the wilds of Siberia and Tartary exhibits the sublime spectacle of an incalculable population, which, during a long succession of ages, has been disciplined into all the arrangements of social union, and, by a gradation of which the steps are unknown to the historians and philosophers of Europe, has attained a high pitch of civilization, industry and refinement. What an immense accession to the science of human nature will be furnished by the results of an insulated experiment performed on so large a scale! But it is not upon the gratification of curiosity, to the philosopher either of Europe or China, that our anticipations are most fondly allured to dwell: our fancy is still more powerfully engrossed by the prospect of a change which will be accomplished, soon after a free intercourse, in the moral situation both of China and Europe. The mutual collision of diversified manners, opposing opinions, separate experience, will strike a reciprocal stimulous into each; the impulse will pervade the whole system of the earth, accumulating force in the course of its progress; new sciences will spring up, and new arts; new powers will develope themselves, of which man is yet unconscious; but even then the career of human kind will still appear infinite and their prospects without a close."

SOLUTION OF THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS,

PROPOSED IN THE NOVEMBER NUMBER OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE, BY WILLIAM B. HERIOT.

A purchased $\frac{5}{8}$ of the vessel, equal to	15-24ths.
He retained $\frac{1}{3}$, equal to	8-24ths.
Leaving for him to dispose of,	7-24ths.
B purchased $\frac{3}{8}$ of the vessel, equal to	9-24ths.
He retained $\frac{1}{3}$,	8-24ths.
Leaving for him to dispose of,	1-24th.
C purchased of A and B $\frac{1}{2}$, or 8-24ths of the vessel, for	$800
Of which A having furnished 7-24ths of the vessel, or $\frac{7}{8}$ of C's $\frac{1}{2}$, is entitled to retain	$700
And B, having furnished 1-24th of the vessel, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of C's $\frac{1}{2}$, A has only to pay B,	100
Charleston, (S. C.,) Nov. 18, 1844.	$800

PROPOSED SYSTEM OF CLASSING MERCHANT VESSELS.

We learn, by the last arrival from England, that it is in contemplation by some influential gentlemen, ship-owners, and others connected with maritime affairs, to propose a movement at the various ports, with a view to bring about a more satisfactory system of building and classing merchant vessels. The amendments suggested are, that when the keel of a ship is laid down, the ship-builder shall declare whether he intends to build a ship to class twelve, ten, or eight years, and that the surveyor shall examine and report upon the work as it progresses, stage by stage. The object is to prevent the building of slop ships, and, by substituting a better class, to reduce the rates of premiums.

COMPLAINT OF A MERCHANT'S WIFE.

We copy the following communication of a merchant's wife, to the editors of the EVENING MIRROR, a Journal that should find its way into every merchant's family; as we are quite sure it would exert a most happy influence in reforming the "crying evil" so justly complained of by "Amanda Smith."

"MESSRS. EDITORS—Allow me, through your agreeable columns, to protest most heartily and fervently against a crying evil in this community, and one which preys upon the spirits, and undermines the happiness of too many of us poor women. I mean that terrible, unnatural, slavish devotion, which our lords and masters pay to their business; thereby, at the same time, destroying their own health and comfort, and poisoning the fountain of all our enjoyments. I hear nothing, from morning to night, but discussions of the tariff, or controversies about stocks, state loans, railroads, steamboats, and such like subjects—all which are well enough at the exchange or the counting-house, but which should never be allowed to profane the sacredness of the fireside. Even young bachelors are often guilty of these enormities. It seems to me, at times, as if there were no more men left in the world—they have all become *citizens*. Their humanity seems merged in some presidency or secretaryship. They are good trustees, directors, cashiers, bankers; but they are very indifferent husbands and fathers. They are utterly without social chat—they read no pleasant books—they hate the sound of music—they visit nobody—they scarcely deign to look at the face of Nature; and, as for their unhappy wives, they must put up with cold looks and cold words. This is all wrong, gentlemen. It is a sad perversion of life—it is cruelly unjust to us and our daughters; and it is the too certain source of deep and lasting misery to those who indulge in it. Home is no longer the garden of the heart, watched over by love, its roses kept in perennial bloom—but thorns and briers cumber its beauty. But I feel this matter too deeply to speak in metaphors. My own domestic circle is fast losing its charms, and becoming more dismal and formal than a hotel. I am beginning to lose all pride in my household. I am growing daily more unsociable. My health and temper are both giving way. In a word, I bitterly feel and lament the want of that sympathy and communion of heart, which are so liberally promised us in the marriage-vow. Come, then, gentlemen, like good chevaliers, to our relief. Here is a cause worthy of your active and sprightly pens. Exhort, frighten, ridicule, if you can, our erring husbands into a return to their allegiance, and to a more rational and happy life, and you will ever oblige Your sincere friend, AMANDA SMITH."

THE MERCHANT AND THE CHILD.

Richardson says, in his "Literary Leaves:"—"I remember entering a well known mercantile house in London, just as some unfavorable intelligence had been received. The head of the firm, with his hard but honest features, looked at once stern and anxious. A small hand twitched his coat behind. He turned slowly round, with a sullen and almost savage brow. His eye fell upon the prettiest little human face that ever gleamed upon the earth. But the child's merry laughter was scarcely more delightful than the bland and beautiful smile that kindled on the merchant's care-worn cheek. His aspect underwent such an instantaneous and entire change, that he looked as if he had changed his nature also. Had a painter stamped his portrait on the canvass, at that happy moment, it would have presented an exquisite illustration of amenity and love. Few, however, of his mercantile friends would have recognized the man of business. He was single and childless; but the fondest parent could not have greeted his own offspring with a sweeter welcome."

LIBERALITY OF AN AMERICAN MERCHANT.

The license for the sale of spirituous liquors at Lahaina, island of Mani, one of the Sandwich islands, was put up at auction, and bid in by the house of Peck & Co., for thirteen hundred dollars. The object was to put an entire stop to the sale of ardent spirits at the island, which was carried on to the great demoralization of the inhabitants, as well as to the crews of vessels which touched there. May American merchants, at home and abroad, be often distinguished by such acts of liberality!

MARYLAND TOBACCO WAREHOUSE.

We notice that the heavy and substantial tobacco warehouse, says the Baltimore Sun, building for the state of Maryland, is rapidly progressing. It will make a decided improvement in the appearance of the wharf upon which it is being erected. It is an immense structure; and, together with the others, will afford ample accommodation to the tobacco trade of the city, which has suffered for lack of warehousing. At times, the other warehouses have been so crowded, as to render a resort to private warehouses necessary—and even then, numbers of hogsheads have remained unhoused, and suffered damage from exposure. Producers from other states have thereby been deterred from sending to this market. Our own producers are obliged to send here for inspection, and the damages they have sustained being reimbursed by the state, have operated as a severe drawback upon the inspection revenue. In 1834, the charge to this account amounted to $4,134 50; and during the last session of the legislature many applications were made for similar reimbursements, and we believe in no instance denied, when the loss was well established. The revenue from inspection of tobacco, in Baltimore, amounted, at the end of the last fiscal year, to $65,045 53; and the disbursements for wages, laborers, and incidental expenses, to $34,267 48; leaving a nett revenue to the state of $20,781 05.

MERCANTILE AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

M. Say, the celebrated French writer on political economy, has the following anecdote, which inculcates a lesson of economy well worth heeding, in mercantile as well as domestic life:—

"Being in the country, I had an example of one of those small losses which a family is exposed to through negligence. From the want of a latch of small value, the wicket of a barn-yard, looking to the fields, was left open. Every one who went through, drew the door to; but, having no means to fasten it, it re-opened. One day, a fine pig got out, and ran into the wood, and immediately all the world was after it—the gardener, the cook, dairy-maid, all ran to recover the swine. The gardener got sight of him first, and jumping over a ditch to stop him, he sprained his ancle, and was confined a fortnight to the house. The cook, on her return, found all the linen she had left to dry by the fire burned; and the dairy-maid having ran off before she tied the cows, one of them broke the leg of a colt in the stable. The gardener's lost time was worth twenty crowns, valuing his pain at nothing; the linen burned, and the colt spoiled, were worth as much more. Here is a loss of forty crowns, and much pain and trouble, vexation and inconvenience, for the want of a latch which would have cost three pence; and this loss, through careless neglect, falls on a family little able to support it."

NEW VARIETY OF WHEAT.

Several farmers in this quarter, says the Cincinnati Atlas, have cultivated a new variety of wheat, for a year or two past, with great satisfaction. It is called Alabama wheat, from the fact that about a half a pint was brought here from that state in 1839, by an observing farmer. After finding that it succeeded well in this climate, he disseminated it for seed, and it is computed that this year 2,000 bushels have been raised, chiefly in the Whitewater valley. It takes the preference, by far, over all other kinds of wheat brought to this market, weighing from 64 to 68 pounds to the bushel. Its yield has averaged about 30 bushels to the acre this season, and the crop was so forward that at Harrison, in this county, it was all harvested by the 6th of June. One man at that place has raised this season 800 bushels, that sells quick at $1 per bushel, for seed. Its culture in this quarter, and in the neighboring parts of Indiana and Kentucky, will be largely extended this fall The Clermont Fourier Association will alone sow 100 acres with it. Mr. Bradbury, Mr Fagin, and probably other millers here, are selling it to the farmers for seed, at $1 per bushel. The supply, however, is far short of the demand.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Poets and Poetry of England, in the Nineteenth Century.* By RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. 1 volume, 8vo., pp. 504. Illustrated with engravings on steel. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

A knowledge of the chief literary productions of the period in which we live, is an essential part of a man's education. When the counting-house is quitted for the parlor, subjects of commerce should be forgotten for those of social life, of fancy, and affection. Few have the means, and fewer still the leisure, necessary for an examination of the entire productions of the really great authors of the present day. Such works as the one before us, therefore, should find a place in every man's collection of indispensable books. It is published in the elegant style of the annuals, and the public are too familiar with the scholarly taste and habits of careful research which distinguish Mr. Griswold, to doubt that, in the literary execution, it is all that could be desired. Mr. Griswold will receive the thanks of the lovers of poetry for this valuable addition to their libraries; but, in parting with him, we may express a hope that he will return to the fields more exclusively his own—American history and letters. He has unquestionably done far more than any other man to diffuse a knowledge and taste for our own literature and art, and thus most for the æsthetical interests of the country. Let him give us his long-ago announced Biographia Americana. Let him devote more time to the illustration of what pertains to our own advancement. We say this with a proper sense of his deservings as a general critic and essayist, but with the conviction that he can in no other way do so important services to his country, or so increase his own high reputation, as by applying himself to those labors, for which his comprehensive and profound acquaintance with American literature, art, and history, so eminently qualify him.

2.—*The Public Life of Lord Chancellor Eldon, with Selections from his Correspondence.* By HORACE TWISS, Esq., one of Her Majesty's Council. In 2 vols., 8vo. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The public are indebted to the American publishers of the present work for reproducing, from time to time, in this country, many of the most valuable specimens of the modern standard literature of England. The numerous extracts, embracing a fund of interesting anecdotes of the life and times of Lord Eldon, that for the last six months circulated freely in the Journals of the day, sharpened our appetite for more, while it convinced us that a reprint of the work would find a ready market. It seems we have not been mistaken or disappointed; and indeed we could scarcely expect to be, while relying on the intelligence of a Philadelphia publishing house, of acknowledged taste and sagacity. The public and private memoir of Lord Eldon is replete with circumstances and events of interest; and his biographer, in possession of every possible source of information, has succeeded in selecting and arranging his materials, and presenting all the important and even the minute features of his subject, with the utmost apparent candor and fidelity. He has drawn largely from the letters, and a manuscript book of anecdotes and observations, noted down by Lord Eldon himself, in his latter years, for his grandson's use and amusement; which, of course, render the volumes all the more entertaining and instructive.

3.—*Flowers for Children.* By L. MARIA CHILD, author of "The Mother's Book," etc. Part 1. For Children eight or nine years old. New York: Charles S. Francis.

This admirable little volume contains eleven tales, poems, or sketches. Mrs. Child has no superior in this department of literature. The fascinating narrative is here made subservient to the purest principles of goodness and truth. A better book cannot well be put into the hands of children. The story of "The Christ Child" furnishes a series of beautiful and touching illustrations of the power of love to subdue and conquer its opposite.

4.—*The Works of Rev. Sydney Smith.* 3 vols., 12mo. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Sydney Smith has long been one of the most distinguished periodical writers of Great Britain. It appears that Lord Brougham, Jeffrey, Murray, and himself, originally projected that most solid and brilliant of all periodical Journals, the Edinburgh Review, and he was its first editor. The volumes whose title we have given, embrace the principal portion of his contributions to that work, during a long course of years, as well as a few sermons, letters, and occasional speeches; and they range through a great variety of topics. The most prominent features of his style appear to us, exact and various learning, clear and classic expression, and a caustic and sparkling vein of humor, that renders the most barren topic a fruitful field of thought, under his ready pen. Some of the early articles of the writer, touching our own country, are quite liberal; but we rejoice to know that, while others are not of the most amiable class, the nation has outgrown the sneers which formerly marked the Edinburgh Review, in its commentaries upon our national character and institutions. The present work forms a part of Carey & Hart's valuable series of British Miscellanies, embracing some of the ablest efforts of England.

5.—*The Poetical Works of Thomas Campbell, complete. With a Memoir of the Author*, by WASHINGTON IRVING, and Remarks upon his Writings, by Lord JEFFREY. With illustrations: Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

A few months before the death of the poet Campbell, which took place last June, he superintended the publication of a complete collection of his poetical writings, which is here reproduced by the American publisher, with the addition of a memoir of the author, by Washington Irving, remarks on his genius, by Lord Jeffrey, and some additional notes by the Rev. Rufus Griswold. The general character of the author's poetical writings are well known on this side of the Atlantic, and anything we might say, as to their peculiar merits, would, therefore, be a work of supererogation. It may not, however, be so, to state that the present edition is the most perfect extant, as indeed it is the most elegant yet published on this side of the Atlantic. The illustrations are perfect gems of the art.

6.—*Etherology; or, The Philosophy of Mesmerism and Phrenology. Including a New Philosophy of Sleep and Consciousness, with a Review of the Pretensions of Neurology and Phreno-Magnetism.* By J. STANLEY GRIMES, Counsellor at Law, Professor of Medical Jurisprudence in the Castleton Medical College, and author of "A New System of Phrenology." New York: Saxton & Miles.

We have known the author of this work from our "mutual boyhood," and marked his untiring efforts at self-education, whilst contending with obstacles that would have disheartened a less determined and self-relying spirit. That he possesses a peculiar order of genius, and that he has added thereto varied and vast acquirements, requires no other proof than an examination of his new system of phrenology, and the present remarkable work; and we are quite sure that he has not yet developed all the resources of his mind, but is destined to produce achievements in the wide circle of human investigation, that will leave an impress on the path of science. Without, however, either assenting or dissenting from the theory of Professor Grimes, as we have not examined it sufficiently to entitle us to pursue such a course, we may be permitted to remark that is the product of an acute observer, and an ardent and earnest searcher after truth; and therefore contains much that will interest every candid mind.

7.—*Lorenzo; or, The Empire of Religion.* By a Scotch Non-Conformist, a Convert to the Catholic Faith. Translated from the French. By a Lady of Philadelphia. Baltimore: John Murphy.

The author of this handsome miniature volume says that, "in embracing the Catholic religion, he comprehended full well its grandeur and sublimity, and how it inspires generous devotedness and heroic actions;" and he has certainly given free scope to the ardor of his imagination, and to the liveliness of his thoughts and sentiments. Whatever we may think of the Catholic form of religion, all will agree with Lorenzo, that "the true Christian is an angel upon earth."

8.—*A Philosophical Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful. With an Introductory Discourse concerning Taste.* By the Rt. Hon. Edmund Burke. Adapted to Popular Use. By Abraham Mills, A. M., Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Of the utility and importance of this treatise, in forming the taste of the scholar, and giving a proper direction to his mind, there cannot be a doubt. It is, we believe, universally admitted. But the admirers of Burke can scarcely conceive that "in the editions of the work hitherto published, there are some passages which violate that delicacy of expression that should peculiarly characterise the language of books designed for the use of schools;" although the statement is made by the learned professor, who has "carefully expunged, without interrupting, in the smallest degree, the chain of the author's reasoning." Mr. Mills has further "improved" the work by giving a free translation of the Latin and Greek quotations, and adding questions at the foot of each page.

9.—*Tales and Sketches. Second Series.* By the author of "Hope Leslie," "Home," "Letters from Abroad," etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This little volume comprises a variety of tales and sketches, originally written for our magazines and annuals, during the last ten years. They inculcate, in an agreeable manner, those moral and intellectual lessons that impart to the writings of Miss Sedgwick a standard value. "Walter Harvey," the leading story in the collection, is based upon the circumstances of the great commercial speculations of 1835–36, and the revulsions that followed.

10.—*The American House Carpenter; a Treatise upon Architecture, Cornices and Mouldings, Framing, Doors, Windows, and Stairs. Together with the most important Principles of Practical Geometry.* By R. G. Hatfield, Architect. Illustrated by more than 300 engravings. 8vo., pp. 286. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

There is probably no department of the arts more interesting and useful than that of architecture, especially as connected with the construction of houses. The works heretofore published in this country, upon domestic architecture, and designed for practical use, have, however, been too expensive to be generally circulated, in consequence of the cost of the plates, and the bulky form in which they have been compiled. This work is designed to avoid those disadvantages. It is intended for carpenters—for masters, journeymen, and apprentices. It appears in so condensed a shape, it is so abundantly filled with diagrams illustrating the subject, and it is so concise and practical in its character, that we doubt not it will be widely purchased.

11.—*Hours of Meditation and Devotional Reflection, upon the Religious, Moral, and Social Duties of Life.* By Heinrich Zschokke. Translated from the German. By James D. Haas. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Volumes of essays on important moral topics, developing human experience and practice, in their various aspects and obligations—animated, concise, and truthful, are among the most useful and acceptable books with which to enliven and edify the members of our households. Zschokke's "Hours of Meditation" are of this desirable class. He is a perspicuous observer of the world around, and of his own interior exercises; and his series of delightful and sprightly delineations, both didactic and historical, can be urgently commended to the perusal of all persons who would learn wisdom, and who would understand the most eligible methods of combining sterling knowledge with a life of usefulness and enjoyment.

12.—*Religious Lacon; or, Holy Thoughts. Selected from various Authors.* By the Rev. Joseph Jones, M. A., of New Church. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The work whose title we have given, presents some of the most striking passages from distinguished theological writers, calculated to influence the ordinary routine of every-day duty. It is published in a miniature form, but it is no less useful on that account; as it may thus exert beneficent influences where more bulky works could not find their way.

13.—*The History of the Reformation in Europe, with a Chronology of the Reformation.* By the author of "The Council of Trent." 18mo., pp. 424. London: The Religious Tract Society. New York: Robert Carter.

We here have, in a condensed form, a concise history of the progress of the Reformation throughout the various parts of Europe, commencing with the rise and progress of the corruptions of Christianity, and ending with a consideration of the results of the Reformation. Although the subject is treated briefly, the author embraces a wide circle of view, and gives us a general idea of the advance and influence of that reform which has impressed itself strongly upon the condition of mankind down to the present time.

14.—*Lectures on the Acts of the Apostles.* By the late JOHN DICK, D. D., Professor of Theology of the United Secession Church, Glasgow, author of "Lectures on Theology," etc. 8vo., pp. 407. New York: Robert Carter.

These lectures were originally designed to illustrate the principal events in the history of the Church, from the ascension of Christ to the meeting of the Council of Jerusalem. The plan was afterwards extended, and the whole series is presented to us in a single well printed volume. The style of the author is clear and vigorous, and the various topics which he discusses are exhibited in an intelligible light. The work will probably be widely circulated.

15.—*Meditations and Contemplations.* By the Rev. JAMES HERVEY, A. M., late Rector of Weston Favell, Northamptonshire. Containing his Meditations among the Tombs, Reflections on a Flower Garden, etc. Two volumes in one. 18mo., pp. 295. New York: Robert Carter.

The well known meditations of Hervey are here given to the public in a compressed volume, that will serve to extend their popularity. They abound in religious sentiment, and are imbued with that poetic spirit which easily finds its way to the soul. They can scarcely be read in the right temper, without exerting a salutary influence upon the conduct; and we need hardly add that the book is a most valuable and standard work.

16.—*Sabbath Musings.* By CAROLINE FRY, author of "Christ our Law," "Christ our Example," "The Listener," etc. 18mo., pp. 248. New York: Robert Carter.

It is the object of this little volume to present a series of topics for reflection, adapted to the Sabbath. From the familiar and simple style in which the sentiments are clothed, it is designed for the juvenile mind; yet it may be read by the mature with advantage. The doctrines put forth are illustrated by frequent reference to the holy Scriptures, and appear in a very attractive garb.

17.—*My School-Boy Days.* 18mo., pp. 174. New York: Robert Carter.

The juvenile book, whose title we have quoted, is a fictitious narrative, exhibiting the ordinary incidents associated with the early days of boyhood, when the mind is first expanding, and the fresh feelings of youth are first opening under the salutary influence of school associations. Although it is addressed to youth, the scenes it pourtrays will recall the early incidents of school days, even to the aged.

18.—*The Old Sea-Captain.* By OLD HUMPHREY, author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," etc. 18mo., pp. 252. New York: Robert Carter.

The facts connected with sea life, in its various incidents and vicissitudes, are here sketched, in a fresh, off-hand, and racy style; such as we might naturally expect from an intelligent master of a vessel, on a recent return from a fortunate voyage, when his spirits were highly elated with his success. It is, from the familiarity of the style, mainly addressed to youth; and contains much practical information, in a characteristic form.

19.—*Thoughts Among Flowers.* London: The Religious Tract Society. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This microscopic little volume presents upon its pages an account of the peculiar characteristics of different flowers; and from those characteristics certain moral reflections are drawn, supported by reference to Scripture, and bearing upon every-day and practical life. It is illustrated with a few engravings, and constitutes a pretty and useful gift.

20.—*Notes on Cuba: containing an Account of its Discovery and Early History; a Description of the Face of the Country, its Population, Resources, and Wealth; its Institutions, and the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, with Directions to Travellers Visiting the Island.* By a PHYSICIAN. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The direct commercial intercourse that we sustain with the island of Cuba, together with the local interest, connected with the peculiar circumstances of the island, render this volume of great value to the public of our own country. It has been prepared by an individual who has resided upon it, examined its actual condition, and made himself conversant with the character of the people, the resources of the soil, and the statistics of its domestic production and foreign trade. Besides the information given to us upon those subjects, we have in its pages graphic descriptions of social life, historic data, and narratives of journeys made from point to point, which add much to the interest of the volume. It is, upon the whole, a condensed, and, we doubt not, authentic account of the island, that will be of substantial utility to those who are interested in the condition and prosperity of its population, as well as the island itself, as a field for commercial enterprise.

21.—*Hewet's Illuminated and Illustrated Shakspeare.* Edited by GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. New York: H. W. Hewet.

Shakspeare has been pronounced, by uniform consent, the greatest dramatist that the world has produced. His works belong to all nations, and to all future ages. He has disclosed the springs of the human soul, and the motives of human action, in such a form, and has invested them with such colors, as to evoke the admiration of mankind. We shall possess, in this edition of his dramas, which is now in the progress of publication, in successive numbers, a volume worthy of the reputation of the author. It is edited by one of our purest and most elegant scholars, printed on beautiful paper, and abundantly illustrated with well executed engravings. We sincerely hope that the publisher may reap an ample reward from the public, for his laudable enterprise. The judicious and classical comments of scholars upon the topics of the various dramas, and the embellishments of the volume by finished engravings, if they add to the cost, increase also its solid value.

22.—*History of the French Revolution, its Causes and Consequences.* By F. MACLEAN ROWAN. 2 volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Commencing with a brief outline of the early history of France, the author, thoroughly familiar with the subject, traces with a graphic pen the events that marked the bloody revolution in France, to the establishment of regular government. In the present work, the faults of the people are more insisted upon than those of the rulers; because, says Mr. Rowan, it is written for the former, not for the latter—and because, if the latter have a lesson to learn from history, the former have a still greater one; and one that, if well learned by them, will suffice both. Compiled with care and judgment, essentially popular in its style, clear and methodical in its arrangements, it forms at once a comprehensive and succinct history of the French revolution.

23.—*The Poets of Connecticut.* Edited by Rev. CHARLES W. EVERETT. 8vo., pp. 468. Hartford: Case, Tiffany & Burnham.

Connecticut, with its small territorial limits, has produced a greater number of brilliant poets, probably, than any other state of the Union. Many of those whose poetical efforts are here embodied, had not a very wide reputation; yet there are not a few whose names are known in every part of their native land, and have even been wafted across the Atlantic. The present collection contains a selection of the most popular pieces of the poets of Connecticut, and brief biographical sketches. It will circulate among those who are fond of poetry in general, as well as those who are especially interested in the poets of the state whose best efforts are here given to the public.

24.—*The Language of Love, with Hints on Courtship.* New York: J. S. Redfield.

A subject in which all are interested, at some period of life, is treated in this miniature volume in a manner suited to so important a matter.

25.—*European Agriculture and Rural Economy, from Personal Observation.* By Henry Colman, of the United States of America. Vol. 1. London: Joseph Rogerson: Boston: A. D. Phelps. 8vo., pp. 80.

This is the first part of a work to be completed in ten numbers, designed to improve the agricultural interests of our own country. It will present a description of the actual condition of agriculture in England, which is doubtless in a very perfect state, and thus furnish information for the improvement of that most important interest with us. The mode in which the author has executed the first part of his task, is worthy of all approval. His observations are pertinent and judicious, and he has conveyed them in a condensed pure, and classical style, which will conduce to their solid value.

26.—*Family Pride; or, The Palace and the Poor-House. A Romance of Real Life.*
27.—*The Ruined Gamester; or, Two Eras in my Life. A Historical Romance.*
28.—*Pride or Principle—which Makes the Lady?* Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackstone.

Here are three American tales, inculcating, as we might infer from their titles, those lessons of every-day virtue, if we may be allowed the expression, so important in the conduct of social and domestic life. The evils of gaming, and the false positions that pride necessarily causes us to assume, frequently in opposition to correct principles, are depicted with a fidelity that cannot fail of arresting the attention of the most casual reader.

29.—*Love Gift, for* 1845. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

"The Love Gift" consists of the "poetry of love," selected from the poets of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. There are in the volume pieces from about eighty different writers, the names of which are given in the index, with the time of their birth and death. The volume is richly bound in gold gilt, and printed on snow-white paper, emblematical of the sentiment it celebrates in its impassioned numbers.

30.—*The Mourner's Chaplet; an Offering of Sympathy for Bereaved Friends. Selected from American Poets.* By John Keese. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The bereaved heart will appreciate the sentiments that induced this compilation of consolatory verse. The sad experience of the author, in the melancholy fate of a beloved son, combined with a pure and refined taste, lend a charm to the volume, and impart to it an interest that kindred hearts will respond to.

31.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine, and Foreign Miscellany.* Edited by P. L. Simmonds, Esq., F. L. S., etc. London: Simmonds & Clowes.

The December number of this ably-conducted work is, as usual, replete with articles of value and interest, not only to the British colonist, but to those who would acquire recent and accurate information of every quarter of the globe. We consider this the most useful and important work that reaches us from the other side of the Atlantic.

32.—*No Church without a Bishop; or, The Controversy between the Rev. Drs. Potts and Wainwright. With a Preface by the latter, and an Introduction and Notes.* By an Anti-Sectarian. 8vo., pp. 176. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The pamphlet whose title we have given, embraces the discussion between two eminent divines, upon the organization of the Episcopal church; which, it is well known, recently attracted, in a great degree, the public attention. Without entering into any expression of opinion regarding the merits of the controversy, we would remark that its publication in a collective form was desirable, in order that the public may judge of the points in issue, and the ability, as well as the mode, in which the controversy was conducted.

33.—*A Materia Medica Botanica; containing the Botanical Description, Natural History, and Chemical and Medical Properties of Plants, illustrated by colored engravings of Original Drawings, taken from Nature.* By Peter P. Good, A. M., and A. B. Strong, M. D., Botanists, New York. [A serial, four numbers of which are before us, each containing a handsomely executed engraving of some plant, colored after nature, and accompanied with a botanical description, natural history, and its chemical and medical properties. Mr. Good is a near kinsman of the late Dr. Good, author of the "Book of Nature," and was brought up under his tuition. With the manuscripts of that distinguished physician and naturalist, and the rare facilities for the preparation of such a work thus enjoyed, joined to his own cultivated taste, renders the present volume an extremely valuable contribution to botanical science.]

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

FEBRUARY, 1845.

Art. I.—FRENCH SPOLIATIONS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

The following report and resolutions, upon the subject of the claims of a large number of our citizens upon the United States, for French spoliations prior to 1800, were recently adopted by the Legislature of Rhode Island. They are understood to be from the pen of the Hon. Joseph L. Tillinghast, late a member of Congress from that state.* Nothing new could be added to facts already known to the few in the country who have paid particular attention to the subject, but Mr. Tillinghast has presented, in a condensed and comprehensive form, the leading facts and considerations, that should influence Congress to prompt and decided legislative action. As these facts, however, are not generally known and understood—as the claims are of very extensive interest, and so founded in justice as to merit the attention and approbation of the nation, we have thought it might prove acceptable to many of our readers, to publish, and thus preserve, this concise history in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, particularly as the subject is now before Congress.†

* Mr. Tillinghast enclosed a copy of this report to us a short time prior to his death, with a request that it might be published in our Magazine.

† The editor of the National Intelligencer, on making up his account of the second week's labor of the present session of Congress, speaks thus of the French claims:

"In the Senate, the claim of citizens interested in French spoliations prior to 1800, which it is a reproach to Congress, and a dishonor to the government, to have suffered to remain so long unsettled, has been brought to notice in a manner, and from a political quarter which inspires some faint hope for those who, viewing the subject as we do, consider the public faith solemnly pledged in this matter, that justice will at length be done. Most of the original claimants rest in their graves; but their descendants, to whom these claims were in many cases the only legacy, are, most of them, as we understand, in a situation to entitle them to the deepest sympathy for their sufferings—some of them in poor-houses, and others in abject dependence, to each of whom the government, for more than forty years has rightfully owed thousands of dollars. We do not know a single man or woman among them, but we have long thought them greatly wronged and oppressed by the government. It is not necessary to multiply words on this subject. The neglect of the government for so long a time to discharge its duties towards creditors, amounts to a refusal—and a refusal to pay, by a single state, is denominated repudiation."

The claims of our citizens upon the general government for French spoliations prior to the convention of 1800, are, in effect, but claims for that just compensation which the Constitution of the United States expressly provides for all whose private property is taken for public use. The words of the Constitution are, "nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation."

These claims were originally valid and admitted claims against the French government.

The claim of an individual of one nation upon the government of another, for illegal captures or confiscations of his property under the authority and command of that government, is property. The claim is a portion of the private property of the individual. As such, it has a specific value in market; it is transferable for value; and on the death of its owner it passes to his legal representatives. It is true it cannot be enforced in a court of law, for nations are not amenable to such tribunals. But the right is not without its remedy. Nations are amenable to each other, under the laws of nations; and the appropriate and well known remedy, in such cases, is negotiation, or, if that fails, war. It is true, that flagrant and formal war—what is called "solemn war,"—so far dissolves the claim, that unless the nation which declares the war is so successful in it as to be able to secure the indemnity by the treaty which ensues, the indemnity may be lost. Still, by the code of nations, war is the penalty upon which an unjust nation refuses right. It may rather be called the process for enforcing right, as civil tribunals employ force, in the last resort, in their process for compelling the justice which is not voluntarily rendered. But in the case of demands upon nations where the validity of the claims is either admitted or apparent, resort to war has long ceased to be necessary. Our whole experience, as a nation, shows the truth of this. Millions upon millions have been claimed and recovered of foreign governments through the peaceful remedy of negotiation: and numerous as are the governments against which we have had occasion to urge such demands, we have as yet found no Christian government willing to encounter war, by a plain refusal to comply with its responsibilities in such cases. The remedy by negotiation is therefore believed to be sufficient.

All governments are bound to assert for their citizens, or subjects, the rights which they are entitled to claim against foreign governments, and to prosecute those rights for the obtaining of complete redress, where redress is delayed or refused. They are bound to do this as much as they are bound to provide legal remedies in proper tribunals of justice, for wrongs committed by and upon individuals within their own jurisdiction; as much as the officers and courts of law are bound to apply the remedies which the law provide.

Where the injury, on which the demand was founded, was accompanied, at the time, by a promise of indemnification, or was followed by an admission of responsibility, the value of the claimant's property in the claim can seem to be subject to no contingency, unless he may apprehend one in some neglect or mismanagement of his own government, or in the insolvency of the government that owes the indemnity.

The claims in question are for captures and confiscations of some six or seven hundred vessels and their cargoes, under the authority of certain decrees issued by France, between 1793 and 1800, in a war in which we were neutrals. France promised indemnification to the innocent neutrals that should suffer under those decrees; and she subsequently acknowledged her responsibility for these particular claims. In the negotiation in which our government took charge of them, France expressed herself disposed to pay to our government, in money, the amount that should be ascertained, by commissioners, to be due upon them; in which case she would expect similar indemnities to be paid in money, to her, for some sixty claims of her citizens against our government; also, payment of such national claims as she might establish, and a full compliance with all the national rights that had accrued to her under existing treaties; or else, to pay our government the full value of the indemnities due to our citizens as claimed, by offsetting so much thereof against the claims of her citizens as would indemnify them

and the residue against a portion of her national claims and rights, which, to a certain extent, she would thereupon relinquish as against us.

The owners of these claims, then, held them in 1800 as property, recognized and protected by the principles and remedies of public law; as absolutely property, to all intents and purposes, as is property in any vested right to damages, property in any chose in action, or any other property in title, which, as between citizen and citizen, is recognized and protected by the provisions and remedies of municipal law. As property, they could be transferred for valuable consideration, or assigned for security; they descended from ancestor to heir, and were administered by executors and administrators.

In 1801, the government of the United States took the whole of this private property for public use. It took this property and appropriated it to, and for the use and benefit of, the whole nation, as arranged for, and designated in, the ratifications of a convention with France, commenced in 1800, and finally ratified in 1801. In the negotiation which ended in that convention, these claims were the prominent subject of demand on our part; while, on the part of France, aside from a comparatively few claims in behalf of individuals, the demands were of a different character: they were for performance thereafter, and for reparation for non-performance theretofore, of treaty stipulations that had been found to be very onerous to the government and people of the United States, and were likely to become still more so. In that negotiation, our government took the control of the claims of its own citizens, and deliberately, and no doubt wisely, extinguished them as against France, by releasing that nation therefrom, for the consideration of a release from France to the United States of matters of most critical interest, and of incalculable importance to our whole country.

One of these matters was the obligation of the United States, by the treaty of alliance of February 6, 1778, to guarantee to France, against all other powers, and forever, all her dominions on this side of the Atlantic, including St. Domingo and her other West India Islands, as they were possessed by her in 1778. This obligation is found in the following words, in the 11th article of that treaty: "The two parties guaranty mutually from the present time, and forever, against all other powers, to wit, the United States to his Most Christian Majesty, the present possessions of the Crown of France, in America, as well as those which it may acquire by the future treaty of peace: and his most Christian Majesty guaranties, on his part, to the United States, their liberty, sovereignty and independence," &c., "and also their possessions," &c.

Of that treaty we had the full benefit, in the large and efficient assistance we thenceforth received from France, which contributed to the early and successful result of the war of the revolution, in the establishment of our independence. Having established our independence, and having no foreign possessions, the guaranty on the part of France was, thereafter, in effect, merely nominal. But France had foreign possessions in our neighborhood, constantly and eminently exposed to assault and conquest. We have seen them successively torn from her dominion. The guaranty on our part, therefore, was of grave and serious consequence, pregnant with peril and expense to the nation: and the fulfilment of it must inevitably, and often, have embroiled us in war.

Another of these matters, was the claim of France under the treaty of amity and commerce, of February 6, 1778, which contained mutual and large concessions of exclusive privileges to the people and government of each nation, in regard to their commerce and navigation, their ships of war and privateers, and the proceedings of their several functionaries in each other's ports, in relation to prizes and other subjects. Among other advantages, secured to France by this treaty, was that of using our ports for the shelter and accommodation of her public ships of war and privateers; for repairing, providing and fitting them out; for receiving, protecting and dismissing at pleasure, her prizes, without entry or duties, and without interference, on our part, either through our Admiralty courts or otherwise: from all which privileges every enemy of France was expressly and forever excluded.

Another of these matters arose under the Consular Convention of November 14,

1788, securing to the Consuls and Vice Consuls of France independent powers of police and judicature in our ports.

What inconvenience, annoyance, and public inflammation, had arisen in the interval between 1788 and 1800, from the exercise of the powers and privileges claimed under these treaties by the Consuls and Vice Consuls, and by one of the Ministers of France in this country; what accusations, recriminations, and charges of abuse of privileges so liable to abuse, had pervaded and agitated the country, may well be remembered by many of our citizens.

France, then, in the negotiation of 1800, proceeded upon the ground of an undisputed right of our citizens to indemnity from her for losses under her decrees, and by means of her privateers and agents. She was bound to make this admission, not only by the laws of nations, but also by her own express engagement, as contained in her decree of the 9th of May, 1793, directing the capture of neutral vessels, which was the first decree that seriously affected our commerce, and contains these words: "provisions belonging to neutrals shall be paid for according to the value in their destined ports; neutral vessels, after discharging the parts of their cargoes consisting of provisions and enemies' goods, shall be released, their stipulated freight shall be paid, and the tribunals shall allow them a just indemnification for the detention." In a letter of the 14th of October, 1793, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs apologises to our Minister, Mr. Morris, for the capture of our vessels authorised and made under that and subsequent decrees, informing him that the republic had been put to this painful necessity by "the extreme rigor with which the English and other belligerants treat all the neutral vessels destined for France." In the same letter, the same Minister says, "We hope that the government of the United States will attribute to their true cause the abuses of which you complain, as well as other violations of which our cruisers may render themselves guilty, in the course of the present war;" and, "the difficulty of distinguishing our allies from our enemies, has often been the cause of offences committed on board your vessels; all the administration could do, is to order indemnification to those who have suffered, and to punish the guilty."

But, in 1800, France placed against our demand for this promised indemnification, her own demand for a full performance, on our part, and a full indemnity for past non-performance of our engagements and obligations under the treaties. These were of so irksome and hazardous a character, they pressed so closely upon our independence and sovereignty, and called for such sacrifices in regard to our tranquillity and our resources, that our government had long seen that, at some price or other, we must be rid of them. But France insisted on an adherence to such of them as seemed at once very important to her, and very troublesome to us, and she put so high a value upon the modification or relinquishment of such of them as she would consent to modify or relinquish, that our envoys found it was beyond their power to come, at that time, to a definite agreement upon either of these demands. The last and most moderate proposition submitted to them by the French Ministers, was of the 4th of September, in these words:

"We shall have a right to take our prizes into the ports of America.

"A commission shall regulate the indemnities which either of the two nations may owe to the citizens of the other.

"The indemnities which shall be due by France to the citizens of the United States, shall be paid by the United States. And in return for which, France yields the exclusive privilege resulting from the 17th and 22d articles of the treaty of commerce, and from the rights of guarantee of the 11th article of the treaty of alliance."

By this it appears that France valued her rights under the treaties, and her claim for violations of them, at a much higher rate than the amount due from her to American citizens; for, after sacrificing a large portion of those rights, and all her national claim of damages, for the payment of that amount, she still insisted on reserving the important right under those treaties, of bringing her prizes into our ports. But the great privileges and the large claims against our government, for national damages, which she was willing to relinquish in payment of the claims of our citizens, shows how high a value she attached to those claims,

and how unqualified was her sense of the obligation that rested upon her to pay them.

Our envoys deemed this proposition inadmissible, and returned a counter proposition, as the nearest approach they could make to that of France, which was as follows:

"1st. The former treaties shall be renewed and confirmed.

"2d. The obligations of the guaranty shall be specified and limited, as in the first paragraph of their third proposition of the 30th August.

"There shall be mutual indemnities, and a mutual restoration of captured property not yet definitively condemned, according to their 5th and 6th propositions of that date.

"4th. If, at the exchange of ratifications, the United States shall propose a mutual relinquishment of indemnities, the French republic will agree to the same; and in such case, the former treaties shall not be deemed obligatory, except that under the 17th and 22d articles of that of commerce, the parties shall continue forever to have for their public ships of war, privateers, and prizes, such privileges in the ports of each other as the most favored nation shall enjoy."

By this the guaranty was at all events to be limited and reduced to an engagement on the part of each, whenever any of the specified possessions of the other were attacked, to furnish a supply, on the one hand, of arms, on the other, of provisions, to the amount of one million of francs; with liberty to each to exonerate itself wholly from the guaranty by paying, in seven years, the gross sum of five millions of francs in money, or in such securities as might be issued for indemnities: but it was to be at the option of the United States, in the form of the ratifications, by discharging the claim for indemnities, to relieve themselves from the onerous obligations of the treaties, and from the exclusive rights of the French in our ports, reducing them to such general privileges as are enjoyed by the most favored nations.

In the conversation which followed upon these propositions, the French Ministers refused the 2d and 4th, but proposed a modification of the 4th, giving France the same option as the United States, as to renouncing, in the ratifications, all claims to indemnities on both sides, and providing that the treaties, in that case, should still be maintained, in all respects, except that the guaranty should be relinquished, and the privileges of France, under the 17th and 22d articles of the treaty of commerce should also be reduced to such privileges, in those respects, as might be enjoyed by the most favored nation. Our envoys endeavored to treat upon a modification of their 2d proposition, so as to make the guaranty a stipulated succor of 2,000,000 of francs, in case of attack, and redeemable by the payment, at once, of 10,000,000. But the French Ministers refused to treat for any modification of the treaties, unless accompanied with an absolute relinquishment of indemnities, and avowed that, rather than sign such a treaty, even if instructed by their government to sign it, they would resign. Finding, however, that although it had become impossible to agree on this subject, there was no difficulty in regard to any of the other articles of a convention that should regulate the relations and rights of the two nations in all other respects, the Ministers of the two governments, on the 30th of September, agreed upon and concluded such a convention, consisting of twenty-seven articles, inserting in it a provision in relation to the treaties and indemnities, connecting and postponing them; which provision stands as the 2d article of the convention, and is in these words:

"Art. 2. The ministers plenipotentiary of the two parties, not being able to agree, at present, respecting the treaty of alliance of the 6th of February, 1778, the treaty of amity and commerce of the same date, and the convention of 14th November, 1788, nor upon the indemnities mutually due or claimed, the parties will negotiate further on these subjects at a convenient time; and until they have agreed upon these points, the said treaties and convention shall have no operation, and the relations of the two countries shall be regulated as follows."

The convention was immediately ratified by "Bonaparte, First Consul, in the name of the French people."

It will be perceived that, by this 2d article, the French government solemnly admits its responsibility in regard to the indemnities due to, or claimed by, our

citizens, and promises to entertain them as the subject of a further and distinct negotiation.

When the convention was submitted to the Senate of the United States, by the President, that body thought it could perceive that the French Ministers had now not only subscribed to the same admission they had before made, but that they had accompanied it with a better proposal. The Senate appears to have believed that, in that article, the government of France said, in effect, to that of the United States, "We owe large sums to certain of your individual citizens, whose claims you represent and control. The grounds of their claims we do not dispute, and we are willing, and now bind ourselves, to arrange for them to the extent to which it shall be found that they have suffered. But we have large claims upon you as a government, under our treaties, and we hold you to the obligations of the treaties for the future. These we deem of more value than the sums due from us to your citizens. Nevertheless, we put it in your power, by releasing us from those sums, to release yourselves from the damages and obligations which we claim under the treaties. With this we will be content. In proof of which, we have agreed in this article, that your obligations to us under the treaties, shall be suspended and inoperative, until the indemnities claimed by your citizens are provided for, be that time long or short. It is at your option to extinguish our claims at this price, by striking out this article in your ratification, whereby you extinguish the mutual admissions and the mutual promise to negotiate farther. In that case we shall be released forever from our responsibility for the indemnities, and you will be released forever from your responsibilities under the treaties, and for all past damages. The convention will stand complete without this article, and will thenceforward be the only instrument between the two nations that fixes, marks out, and governs their relative rights and grounds of claim."

Believing this to be, in effect, the language of France, the Senate saw that it was now in their power to free this country at once from the entanglement of the treaties, and from all the claims of France arising from them; and they most wisely judged that this freedom was richly worth to the country all that it could possibly cost, by thus making our own government responsible for the indemnities so taken and used in the purchase. In the ratification, therefore, the second article was stricken out, or rather, was declared "to be expunged and of no validity." A provision was also added, limiting the duration of the convention to eight years. Thus conditionally ratified, it went back to France for the assent of that government. The First Consul saw at once the whole effect of the omission of the article. He saw that thereby France lost her claims and treaties, and that the obligation to pay our citizens was transferred from the French to the American government. It was not until after considerable delay and correspondence that he consented to accept the ratification, nor would he, to the last, accept it but on condition that the discharge of France from the indemnities should be expressed in terms. This being acceded to by our Minister, Mr. Murray, the concurrence of the French government was at length given by the First Consul, in the following words: "The government of the United States having added to its ratification that the convention should be in force for the space of eight years, and having omitted the second article, the government of the French Republic consents to accept, ratify, and confirm the above convention, with the addition importing that the convention shall be in force for the space of eight years, and with the retrenchment of the second article; 'provided, that by this retrenchment the two States renounce the respective pretensions which are the object of the said article.'"

This ratification being also conditional, it became necessary to lay the convention again before the Senate, which was done by President Jefferson, and that body, on the 19th of December, 1801, resolved, "that they considered the said convention as fully ratified, and returned the same to the President for the usual promulgation."

Thereupon, on the 21st of December, 1801, President Jefferson, by proclamation, announced the convention to be finally ratified.

Our government then renounced, and released to France, the claims of the individual citizens of the United States, who held and owned those claims as their

private property; receiving as a consideration therefor, a renunciation and release on the part of France, of all her claims, individual and national, for counter indemnities, up to the date of the convention, and of all the obligations of the treaties from that time forward.

From that day, no farther representations have been made to the French government by that of the United States on the subject of these claims; for the simple reason, that they have been paid to our government by France. Prior to this, they constituted the great subject of national complaint and national demand against France. Mr. Jefferson, as Secretary of State, and by command of the President, had, in 1793, called on the merchants who might, under the French decrees, suffer injuries "contrary to the law of nations and existing treaties," to forward the evidence of their claims to the Department of State, with an assurance that "on their forwarding hither well authenticated evidence of the same, proper proceedings will be adopted for their relief:" so that both the first French decree of May, 1793, had promised indemnity to neutrals that might suffer, and our own government had promised its protection to these claims. Our envoys to France had received the most positive instructions to insist upon their payment, and to agree to no arrangement without a provision for them. But, since 1801, no Minister to France has been authorized to hint to that government that we have any ground of discontent or of demand against her for indemnities of this class, of a date anterior to that year; simply because these anterior claims of our citizens were then paid to our government by France. The convention for the cession of Louisiana, in 1803, provided for DEBTS due to citizens of the United States, but for none of these claims for spoliations, simply because these had been paid to our government by France. Mr. Rives, in the administration of Gen. Jackson, was sent to France to negotiate a treaty for similar indemnities due to our citizens, and he succeeded in obtaining such a treaty, securing payment of all outstanding claims of our citizens upon the French government, and payment thereof has been made by the French King; but in that negotiation Mr. Rives did not, and could not, present or refer to these claims, simply because it was perfectly well known to both governments, that these claims had already been paid to our government by France. Millions have been paid to our citizens by foreign states since 1801, and all who have suffered wrongs, except these claimants, have experienced, in this respect, the benefit due to them for their support of a just and energetic government: these claimants alone, these citizens, who equally support that government, have been excluded from that benefit, simply because their claims have been paid to our government by France.

All who acted for either nation, in the final conclusion of that convention, perfectly understood at the time, that these claims were so paid to our government by France; and that such was the intention of both nations in the ratifications. Mr. Jefferson was President. In December, 1801, he authorized Mr. Madison to write to our Minister, Mr. Livingston, in respect to the declaratory clause added by the First Consul, the following: "I am authorized to say, that the President does not regard the declaratory clause as more than a legitimate inference from the rejection by the Senate of the second article."

Mr. Madison was Secretary of State. Writing to Mr. Pinckney, our Minister to Madrid, in 1804, when Spain sought to evade our claims on her, and had cited our relinquishment of these claims to France, Mr. Madison says, "The claims, again, from which France was released, were admitted by France, and the release was for a valuable consideration, in a correspondent release of the United States from certain claims on them."

Napoleon Bonaparte was the ruler of France. Having occasion to refer to this transaction, while at St. Helena, he said: "The suppression of the second article of the convention put an end to the privileges which France possessed by the treaties of 1778, and annulled the just claims which America might have made for injuries done in time of peace."

Chief Justice Marshall, who was one of the three envoys first sent out, said, in regard to these claims, "If the envoys renounced them, or did not, by an article in the treaty, save them, the United States would thereby become liable for them to her citizens."

It is as needless, as it would be tedious, to exhibit in detail the illegal acts of France which gave rise to these claims, for the purpose of showing that they were valid claims against her government; because their validity has been admitted and acted upon by both nations, in the most solemn manner in which nations can act upon such subjects.

It may seem equally needless to allude to an argument that was no sooner raised than refuted, that the hostile demonstrations of the two nations just prior to the convention, might be considered as a state of war that abrogated the claims. Even if it could be said with any truth, that there had been war, it would be perfectly absurd to say that the claims which were provided for, and paid in the treaty of peace, were abrogated by the war! But there was not a war. Neither nation considered itself at war: neither the rulers of France, on their part, nor the Congress of the United States, which alone could declare war on our part. On the contrary, they expressly avowed to each other, that they negotiated upon the same footing as if no "misunderstanding" had existed: that the relation between them had not been that of war; that they treated for the purpose of preventing war. And they entertained, discussed, and allowed such mutual propositions and demands, as by their very nature showed their recognition of the uninterrupted obligations of a state of amity. This suggestion, however, of war, is wholly from the purpose, and foreign to the question. For the case of the claimants is not that their claims have been refused or rejected by France, but that they have been allowed and paid, war or no war, to their own government, which has appropriated them to its own use: that their government has received from France the full and admitted value of their claims, in a release from national demands and obligations, which it had before endeavored to purchase of France, by the offer of large sums of money, added to other inducements; and that the just amount of their claims is, therefore, now detained in the treasury of the United States from its owners.

The value to this nation of the release obtained from France, is too apparent to need a word of comment. How highly it was appreciated by our government, is evinced by its previous anxiety, and long continued efforts to obtain it. Indeed, prior to the ultimate negotiation, but subsequent to the existence of these claims, Congress had, by an act, declared that the treaties should no longer be considered as in force: not that it believed that one party can release itself from a compact without the consent of the other; but, knowing what claims could be presented against France, as an offset, it was willing to take the responsibility of refusing thereafter to perform obligations so burdensome and vexatious to the country, choosing rather to abide whatever penalty might ensue. At length a far more satisfactory, and doubtless, also, a cheaper mode of obtaining the release, was found in the use that was made of the fund belonging to these claimants.

Immediately after the promulgation of the convention, to wit, in the winter of 1801–2, many of the claimants presented their memorials to Congress, asking to be indemnified upon the ground that their claims had been released by our government to France; but neither they nor the members of Congress were then, or for a long time afterwards, aware of the whole strength of their case, as it existed in the mass of uncollected evidence which was among the archieves of the State Department. A favorable report was, however, made from a committee of the House of Representatives, on the 22d of April, 1802, by Mr. Giles; but no farther action appears to have been then had upon the memorials in either House. Memorials and petitions continued to be presented from that time to 1827, and various reports, in all six, including that of Mr. Giles, were, from time to time, made upon them by the committees to whom they were referred, but without any farther evidence of the obligation of our government than what might be found in the public laws and treaties. Only two of these reports are adverse to the general principle of responsibility on the part of our government, and they are very short, containing no evidence of more than a cursory animadversion to the case. Three are long, and are evidence of a close and able examination; and that of Mr. Marion, in 1807, though short, is strong, and is as decidedly favorable as are those of Mr. Giles and Mr. Holmes, which last was made in the Senate, in 1827. That

of Mr. Russell, made in the House, in 1822, though adverse to the case submitted to him upon its particular facts, as being at no time a valid claim against France, yet expresses the deliberate opinion of his committee, that the government of the United States, by impairing the just power of such claimants tc resort to France for redress, could be rightly considered as becoming liable for such redress, to the same extent only as it would otherwise have actually been obtained from France; and supposes that, had it appeared that our government had taken and used the claims, as property, for the public good, its responsibility might be unconditional, and not to be measured by the justice of the French government.

These reports were evidently made without reference to the documents relating to the subject, which were in the State Department, and which were not published until the first session of the 19th Congress. In consequence of the numerous memorials that were presented, the Senate, in 1824, made a call for these documents, comprising the instructions to our envoys, and all the correspondence and propositions by and between them and the French Ministers, and with the respective governments, in regard to these claims, and the subjects of the convention. It took more than two years, in the department, to collate and prepare these for communication, and they formed a volume of between 700 and 800 pages, which was subsequently published by order of the Senate. These were communicated under a report from Mr. Clay, then Secretary of State, in which he speaks strikingly of the value of the release obtained from France in consideration of these claims. This publication was a volume of light upon this subject, to whoever would patiently bestow the labor required for a due examination of it, as it disclosed, and put beyond all reasonable question, the fact, that the claims had been available to the United States at their full amount, and had been exchanged for an adequate and ample consideration. Soon afterwards, in May, 1828, a report in favor of the claimants was made in the Senate, by Mr. Chambers, and a similar one in the House, by Mr. Everett, our present Minister in England. A series of reports, in each House, has followed from that time, several of them from some of the wisest and ablest statesmen of their times, including one from Mr. Webster, two from Mr. Livingston, three from Mr. Everett, all upon a patient and faithful examination of the facts, and all of them decidedly and emphatically favorable to the claimants. There are two dissenting statements from individual members of their respective committees; but every report of a committee since 1827, has been for the indemnification. These reports have, in several instances in the Senate, been accompanied by bills appropriating a sum for the payment of the claims, and providing a board of commissioners to investigate them. One of these bills, reported by Mr. Webster, passed the Senate, upon a full discussion, in 1834. But in the House of Representatives, where changes of membership are more frequent, and where the pressing mass of ordinary business is almost beyond the capacity of the body, there has not been found a time for a full discussion and definite action. Perhaps the labor of the investigation, which the subject is supposed to require, as well as its importance, has had a tendency to occasion its postponement. In the meantime, many a respectable citizen, whose enterprise and activity had contributed to the prosperity of the country, has sunk into the vale of poverty, and languished through a comfortless old age, till released from mortification and despondency by death, having nothing to complain of in the individual dealings of his fellow-citizens, but a victim to the inconsiderate and unjust delay of that government which was instituted for the purpose of securing to him, and to every member of the body politic, the benefit of justice. Others, however, still live to hope, and live to be grateful, for that redemption of national faith, which, though tardy, appears now to be surely on its way. For it is impossible to suppose that the government of this Union, resting as it does for its existence upon intelligence, faith, virtue and honor, will leave itself to be charged on the pages of history with the repudiation of a debt so understandingly contracted, by an authority so absolutely competent to contract it, and for a consideration so purely national and so immeasurably valuable.

Resolutions urgently advising a provision for the satisfaction of these claims had, in 1841, been passed and forwarded to Congress by the legislatures of eight

states of this Union, viz: Rhode Island, Maryland, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Maine, Massachusetts, Delaware, and Alabama. Of these, Rhode Island took the lead, in 1832, and was followed by Maryland, in 1836. Memorials to the same effect have also been presented from disinterested citizens of other states, from members of the convention of Pennsylvania for amending the constitution of that state, and from several boards of trade. Wherever the question meets with attention and examination, there appears to be produced a conviction of its merits.

In 1841, the number of claimants who had memorials before Congress, without including those who petitioned prior to 1827, was 1,011. Of these, twenty-six were citizens of Rhode Island, and claiming large amounts. But this number comprises by no means all of our fellow-citizens who will be entitled to a portion of the compensation that may be awarded. The interest which citizens of this state have in the question, is not only large in amount, but extensive in respect to numbers.

The whole amount of the indemnities due, will probably never be ascertained. Nor is any near approximation possible, but by means of commissioners, who should have power to investigate, and whose awards should be definitive. In 1827, Mr. Clay communicated to a committee of the Senate a list of such cases as were on the files of the State Department, in number 456, and estimated the probable amount of eighty-eight of them at $2,235,702 59. Of the residue he had no means for estimating the amount; but as the above sum applies to less than one-fifth of the number of cases in the department, there can be no doubt that the whole amount is largely over five millions of dollars. The bills reported in the Senate have provided for an appropriation of five millions, in full satisfaction.

It is presumed that a provision perfectly satisfactory to the claimants might now be made, without the slightest embarrassment to the nation. A stock might be issued in convenient certificates. These certificates might form the best of currency, especially as a mode of remittance; or they might be so expressed as to have the qualities of a more fixed capital. Life and usefulness might be thus given to a now dormant property.

But no advantages of any sort can stand in competition with those which at all times necessarily result to a nation from a strict compliance with the obligations of good faith. Beyond all considerations of advantages, or of sacrifices, is the high and paramount obligation, which rests upon all nations, and most emphatically upon ours, to respond, without hesitation or reluctance, to the demands of that justice which is the motive and object of political society.

In conformity with the views expressed in the foregoing report, the committee recommended the passage of the following resolutions, which were finally adopted at the session of the General Assembly of Rhode Island, January, 1844.

Resolved, That prior to the convention between the United States and France, in 1800, there were large and just claims due from France to citizens of the United States, for spoliations on their commerce, which claims were asserted as just by the government of the United States, and were not rejected by France.

Resolved, That by the ratification of said convention, the government of the United States released France from the payment of said claims, in consideration of a corresponding release from the claims of France against the United States, and from the obligations of the treaties which had before existed between the two nations: and that, in the opinion of this assembly, the said mutual release has been of great advantage to the United States as a nation.

Resolved, That this was such an appropriation of private property to public use, as in the opinion of this assembly, entitles the said citizens to just compensation from the government of the United States.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions, and the accompanying report, be transmitted by the secretary, to each of our senators and representatives in Congress: and that they be requested to use their exertions for procuring a just indemnification to said citizens.

Art. II.—THE SIXTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.*

MEMORIAL TO THE HONORABLE THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED:

The undersigned respectfully represent, that various and gross errors having been discovered in the printed edition of the sixth census of the United States, the American Statistical Association appointed them a committee to investigate the matter, and to report thereon to your honorable bodies.

Not having reliable data with which they could compare all the details of the census, they have confined their investigations to the reports respecting education, nosology and employments, and herewith beg leave to communicate the results.

According to the census of 1840, there are in the United States 173 universities, or colleges, containing 16,233 students. There is good reason to suppose, that the number of colleges given, is almost twice as large as the true number, and that the number of students is exaggerated nearly as much. *Four* colleges, for example, are put down to Maine, which has *two*. *Four* to Massachusetts, which has *three*. *Four* to Connecticut, which has *three*, &c.

The number of colleges given for these states is nearly equal to the number of colleges, and of theological schools, having a separate existence, taken together. Not unlikely, institutions of this latter class were indiscriminately included under the designation of colleges; although the difference between them, one would suppose, is clearly enough defined.

The number of colleges reported in the American Almanac, for 1844, is 105, and the number of students, by which is meant undergraduates, or members of the four collegiate classes, is about 10,000.

The errors in regard to the common schools are the most striking. Your memorialists are aware, that in the states of New York, Connecticut, and in some others, one portion of the cost of maintaining the public schools is assessed equally upon all the children who enjoy their advantages. But this capitation tax, or tuition fee, is only a part, and in some states a very small part of the whole expense of the school establishment, and, therefore, these children are educated mostly, and in Connecticut almost entirely, at the public charge.

Beside, this tuition fee is assessed only upon such as are able to pay it. All others are exempted from this tax. They are, therefore, strictly speak-

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* The following extract of a letter from the chairman of the committee of the "American Statistical Society," on the census of the United States, to the editor of this Magazine, will explain the objects and character of the memorial.

"We herewith send you the manuscript copy of the memorial of the errors of the sixth census, presented by the American Statistical Association to Congress, for publication in your Magazine. Many learned and elaborate articles upon the census, and upon the subjects connected therewith, have already appeared in your journal, but none which expose the fallacy of that document; and therefore of all theories concerning it, or of doctrines drawn from it. This memorial has been forwarded to both houses of Congress, to Mr. Huntington of the Senate, and to Mr. Adams of the House, and will doubtless meet with proper attention there. In the meantime, it is the desire of this Association to convey the remedy through your journal, wherever the evil has gone before it. For this purpose, we request an insertion as early as convenient."

ing, educated at the public charge. This last class must be confined nearly to children of paupers, for this capitation tax is so small in New York, being less than one dollar a year for each child, that very few are so poor as to be unable to pay it. The law is, with very few exceptions, equal throughout any state, and, therefore, the proportion of children educated at public charge, must vary in any state, only with the difference of prosperity and pauperism.

In the state of New York, the counties of Alleghany, Cortland, Delaware, Franklin, Fulton, Hamilton, Lewis, Niagara, Ontario, Orleans, Oswego, Schoharie, Steuben, Warren, and Yates, according to the sixth census, have no children thus educated at the public charge, while Cayuga has 2,990 children in the public schools, Erie 3,140, Kings, 2,857, New York, 9,690, Sullivan, 1,057, who are thus exempted from the assessment, of less than a dollar each, on account of poverty.

In Connecticut, the same discrepancy is shown. Litchfield county, with 40,448 inhabitants, and 9,667 children in the public schools, has none unable to pay the assessment, while Windham county, with 28,080 inhabitants, and 7,749 children in public schools, has 4,047 so poor as to be unable to contribute this small assessment.

In Maine and Massachusetts the schools are supported entirely at the public cost, and, therefore, every child in the public schools is educated at public charge. But according to the census, in the state of Maine, the county of Aroostook has 1,150 in public schools, and none at public charge; Franklin, 7,185 in public schools, and 296 at public charge; Piscataquis, 5,578 in public schools, and 504 at public charge; York, 18,490 in public schools, and 7,741 at public charge; and the whole state of Maine has 164,477 in public schools, and 60,212 at public charge; and the whole state of Massachusetts, 160,257 in public schools, and 158,351 at public charge.

In the table of the census, under the head of schools, the sixth column contains the whole number of scholars attending the public schools, the seventh column contains the number of those in these schools at public charge, and although the seventh column can be only a part of the sixth, yet the census, in very many cases, makes the latter exceed the former—as in Maine:—

		Whole No. of schol.	No. at pub. charge.
Maine,	Town of Gorham,	25	1,160
"	" Portland,	1,976	2,337
"	" Saco,	800	1,193
N. Hampshire,	" Exeter,	20	590
"	" Portsmouth,	1,040	1,180
Massachusetts,	County of Middlesex,	20,998	24,876
"	Town of Charlestown,	1,285	2,292
"	" Lowell,	1,611	2,695
"	" Lynn,	392	1,035
Connecticut,	" Milford,	45	719
Vermont,	County of Washington,	3,323	6,866
"	Town of Montpelier,	none.	975
New York,	" Buffalo,	1,024	2,676

Similar discrepancies are seen in the tables of some of the other states:—

Ohio,	Columbiana,	2,421	3,738
"	Hardin,	30	522
"	Stark,	809	8,671
Indiana,	Fountain,	30	3,075
Illinois,	La Salle,	118	346
"	Washington city,	157	213

The principles on which people were classed, according to their several employments, seem to have been very various among the different marshals, or the facts which they thus gathered, have been very inaccurately recorded. Some seem to have included the whole population, men, women and children, in these classes, arranging them probably according to the employment of the head of the family; others seem to have noticed only the males over 21, and others have noticed all who were sufficiently old to perform any service; and, lastly, some seem to have entirely neglected this duty, and recorded none in some of the employments, and, in many counties, none are reported to have any employment whatever.

With a view of exposing this extraordinary discrepancy of statement respecting the employments of the people in the various parts of our country, your memorialists have selected the following districts, and placed the numbers stated to be engaged in business, in comparison with the whole population, and with the greatest possible proportion, that in the most liberal interpretation could be supposed to be employed in any occupation.

Seeing that the reports respecting agriculture differ the most widely, the numbers employed in this, also, have been selected for comparison, and both extremes of over and underestimate are herein given.

	Total pop.	Male pop. over 15 years old.	Engaged in agriculture.	Engaged in all oth. employments.	Prop. engaged in all emp'ts, to whole populat'n.
Bucksport, Me.,	3,015	835	1,473	250	1 in 1:8
Washington co., Me.,	38,327	8,177	3,732	2,380	1 in 4.6
Grafton co., N. H.,	42,311	13,305	23,434	3,343	1 in 1.59
Haverhill, N. H.,	2,784	907	1,619	277	1 in 1.4
Hanover, N. H.,	2,613	1,084	985	596	1 in 1.6
W. Springfield, Mass.,	3,738	1,163	1,053	233	1 in 2.7
Smithfield, R. I.,	9,534	2,674	3,419	6,111	1 in 1.
Chenango co., N. Y.,	40,785	12,172	20,545	4,756	1 in 1.6
Wayne co., Pa.,	11,848	.....	.....	32	1 in 370
3 counties in Pa.,	80,818	.....	.....	.....	.....
Clinton co., Ill.,	3,718	1,016	2,844	43	1 in 1.3
Montgomery co., Ill.,	4,481	1,181	2,829	164	1 in 1.5
Champaigne co., Ill.,	1,475	382	5	9	1 in 163
Mason co., Ill.,	3,039	.....	.....	.....	.....
Livingston co., Mich.,	7,430	2,178	7,083	108	1 in 1
Chippewa, Mich.,	534	.....	7	79	1 in 6
Porter co., Ind.,	2,162	.....	.....	.....	.....
Carroll, O.,	18,108	.....	95	150	1 in 74
Harrison, Knox, and Paulding co.'s, O.,	50,712	.....	.....	851	1 in 59
Louisa co., Va.,	15,439	*7,725	7,336	613	1 in 1.9
Northampton, Va.,	7,715	*3,892	3,896	633	1 in 1.7
York, Va.,	4,720	2,416	2,231	106	1 in 2
Giles, Va.,	9,087	2,500	491	131	1 in 148
Logan and Jackson, Va.,	9,199	.....	none.	none.	.....
Perquimas, N. C.,	7,346	3,304	3,679	285	1 in 1.7
Carteret, N. C.,	6,591	.....	7	11	1 in 366
Currituck, Martin, and Rutherford co.'s, N. C.,	33,542	.....	none.	none.	.....
Colleton co., S. C.,	25 548	15,475	14,631	139	1 in 1.7
M'Intosh, Ga.,	5,360	3,346	3,533	200	1 in 1.4
Clarke, Ga.,	10,522	.....	2,123	none.	.....

* White males over 15, and all colored persons over 10.

Walton, Ga.,	10,209	.....	2,635	none.	.....
Ware, Irwin, Houston, Dade, Bryan, Baker, Ga.,	27,184	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dale, Ala.,	7,397	.....	63	2	1 in 113
Henry and Jefferson, Ala.,	12,918	.....	.....	.....	.....
Marion, Ala.,	5,847	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington, Miss.,	7,287	5,246	4,673	4	1 in 1.5
Lawrence, Miss.,	5,920	1,877	625	.....	1 in 9.4
Lauderdale, Miss.,	5,338	2,609	.....	.....	.....
Concordia, La.,	9,414	6,617	7,533	5	1 in 1.2
Avoyelles, La.,	6,616	.....	2	40	1 in 157
St. Landry,	15,233	.....	76	8	1 in 161
St. Mary and St. John Baptist,	14,726	.....	.....	.....	.....
Davidson, Tenn.,	30,509	13,731	20,448	2,187	1 in 1.4
Overton, Tenn.,	9,279	2,538	6,790	104	1 in 1.3
Cocke, Tenn.,	6,992	.....	793	69	1 in 7.8
Anderson, Ky.,	5,452	1,881	3,843	47	1 in 1.4
Lincoln, Ky.,	10,187	.....	724	123	1 in 12
Laurel and Perry, Ky.,	7,168	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicot, Ark.,	3,806	2,254	2,193	.....	1 in 1.7
Desha, Ark.,	1,598	.....	8	.....	1 in 199
Crittenden, White, and Searcy, Ark.,	3,426	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chariton, Missouri,	4,746	1,689	1,954	462	1 in 1.9
Daviess, Linn, and Livingston, Missouri,	13,095	.....	.....	.....	.....
Jefferson, Ia.,	5,713	3,104	2,989	545	1 in 1,6
Apalachicola,	7,712	.....	86	605	1 in 11
5 other counties,	7,957	.....	.....	1	1 in 7957

Most, if not all the counties, which are represented in the foregoing table to have the lowest proportion of their inhabitants engaged in agriculture, are, from their geographical position, almost exclusively agricultural, having few or no towns in which their population might be gathered, and otherwise employed.

The reports upon mining are equally improbable, and very contradictory. In the one volume of the census, the aggregate amount of each description of persons is given, according to their several employments. In another volume is given the "value of produce and number of persons employed in mines, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, &c." In the first, is stated generally the number employed in mining. In the second, is stated specifically the number employed in the several species of mines.

These two statements of persons so engaged, ought to agree exactly. But the following table shows how widely they differ.

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN MINING, ACCORDING TO SIXTH CENSUS, (T. ALLEN'S ED.)

State or County.	Acc'ding to first statem't.	Acc'ding to sec'nd statem't.	State or County.	Acc'ding to first statem't.	Acc'ding to sec'nd statem't.
Maine,	30	357	Kanhawa county, Va.,	160	209
New Hampshire,	13	177	North Carolina,	589	911
Massachusetts,	499	2,081	South Carolina,	51	321
Connecticut,	151	1,593	Georgia,	574	645
Vermont,	77	1,048	Mississippi,	14	.....
New York,	1,898	7,557	Louisiana,	1	145
New Jersey,	2,660	2,207	Tennessee,	103	2,306
Pennsylvania,	4,603	17,122	Kentucky,	331	1,448
Delaware,	5	74	Ohio,	704	3,203
Maryland,	320	1,939	Illinois,	782	445
Virginia,	1,995	3,800	Jo Daviess co., Ill.,	617	73

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN MINING, ETC.—Continued.

Adams co., Ill.,	000	15	Wisconsin,	794	223
Missouri,	742	359	Iowa,	217	382
Washington co., Mo.,	258	67	United States,	15,210	47,558
Florida,	1	50			

The same discrepancy exists in regard to the counties and towns, the excess being sometimes in the first, and at other times in the second statement, and often they are reported in only one.

The reports of the number of men engaged in commerce are subject to the same objection of disagreement—in the enumeration of the people, is one record of the men so employed; but in the account of the capital used in, and the products of, and the numbers of men employed in the various branches of the employments, an entirely different report is made of the number of men so engaged. This will be seen by the following quotations from the sixth census:—

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN COMMERCE.

State or County.	1st statement.	2d statement.	State or County.	1st statement.	2d st'nt.
Maine,	2,921	2,247	North Carolina,	1,734	669
Cumberland co.,	547	1,305	6 counties,	000	277
Hancock co.,	170	14	42 counties,	1,098	000
New Hampshire,	1,379	781	South Carolina,	1,958	1,228
Cheshire co.,	152	252	Pickens co.,	7	20
Sullivan co.,	5	40	Beaufort co.,	38	73
Massachusetts,	8,063	4,711	4 counties,	00	18
Barnstable co.,	240	3	16 counties,	474	00
Nantucket co.,	227	0	Georgia,	2,428	653
Rhode Island,	1,348	403	Bibb co.,	000	263
Connecticut,	2,743	951	Chatham co.,	606	67
Windham co.,	68	1	Alabama,	2,212	179
Vermont,	1,303	515	Lauderdale co.,	68	96
Bennington co.,	83	2	Mississippi,	1,303	283
4 counties,	209	0	Louisiana,	8,549	891
New York,	28,468	17,989	Jefferson co.,	381	675
Albany co.,	425	1,998	New Orleans,	7,392	119
Erie co.,	893	1,160	Tennessee,	2,217	1,162
Chenango co.,	450	10	Knox co.,	103	5
New York city,	11,365	3,062	Shelby,	152	210
3 counties,	262	000	Kentucky,	3,448	855
Orange co.,	167	1,153	Whitley co.,	3	20
Huntendon co., N. J.,	173	45	Jefferson co.,	688	124
Monmouth,	116	166	Ohio,	9,201	4,806
Pennsylvania,	15,338	7,676	Shelby co.,	177	355
Alleghany,	914	1,387	Wood co.,	26	128
2 counties,	000	110	Gibson co., Indiana,	37	2,600
8 counties,	482	000	Indiana,	3,076	3,769
Bucks co.,	428	121	Posey,	86	1
Delaware,	467	169	Illinois,	2,506	790
Maryland,	3,281	1,644	White co.,	32	141
Virginia,	6,361	2,488	Missouri,	2,522	552
Fluvanna co.,	24	111	Arkansas,	215	266
Michigan,	728	456			

The above are only a small portion of instances of this want of agreement in the two parts of the census. In very few instances is there any exact coincidence; in many, the widest difference. It is a notorious fact, that every town in New England, and every county in the United States, has its traders—men engaged in commerce. Yet the census states that there are none of these persons in many towns, where, within the personal knowledge of your memorialists, men are so engaged.

The census states that the city of Albany, N. Y., has only 36 engaged in commerce, while Troy has 796 so employed. The city of Norwich, Ct., is mainly a commercial place, but according to the census, there are none employed in commerce. Five counties in Pennsylvania, 1 in Maryland, 13 in Virginia, 18 in North Carolina, 4 in South Carolina, 38 in Georgia, 11 in Alabama, 18 in Mississippi, 10 in Louisiana, 5 in Tennessee, 15 in Kentucky, 5 in Ohio, 13 in Indiana, 15 in Illinois, 14 in Missouri, 17 in Arkansas, 5 in Michigan, according to the first statement, have no persons employed in commerce.

On the other hand, 1 in Delaware, 9 in Maryland, 12 in Pennsylvania, 74 in Virginia, 42 in North Carolina, 16 in South Carolina, 72 in Georgia, 44 in Alabama, 44 in Mississippi, 31 in Louisiana, 36 in Tennessee, 55 in Kentucky, 29 in Ohio, 44 in Indiana, 56 in Illinois, 41 in Missouri, 30 in Arkansas, and 15 in Michigan, have none so employed, according to the second statement, and even these counties are not the same, so far as they go, in both the statements.

Under the head of commerce, is given the number of "commission houses, commercial houses in foreign trade, and retail dry goods, grocery and other stores, lumber yards and trade," and also the number of men employed in them. These require, at least, one man at a storehouse or yard, generally more than one, oftentimes many, to conduct each one of them. The following table, extracted from the census, will show how few men are employed in them, according to the number of business stores and places :—

States and Counties.	No. bus. stores, &c.	No. men empl'd.
Somerset co., Me.,	77	6
New Hampshire,	1,108	626
Stafford co.,	247	98
Coos co.,	23	00
Massachusetts,	4,126	3,432
Nantucket, and Franklin counties,	106	000
Rhode Island,	1,072	262
Connecticut,	1,710	582
Windham co.,	115	1
Vermont,	761	321
9 counties,	398	6
New York,	14,134	9,592
7 counties,	387	000
9 counties,	1,190	35
Pennsylvania,	7,190	5,064
15 counties,	580	000
Maryland,	2,797	1,330
Illinois,	1,440	405
65 counties,	794	000
Arkansas, 30 counties,	139	000
District of Columbia,	305	49
Total, United States,	63,647	35,963
Virginia,	2,872	1,454
76 counties Va.,	1,308	000
North Carolina,	1,138	432
46 counties N. C.,	730	000
18 counties S. C.,	476	000
Georgia,	1,798	442
75 counties Ga.,	1,207	000
Alabama,	1,060	73
Mississippi,	840	228
Louisiana,	2,991	597
Tennessee, 38 counties,	526	000
Kentucky,	1,835	571
59 counties,	806	000
Ohio,	4,977	2,891
33 counties,	1,035	000
Indiana,	1,875	767
52 counties,	788	000
Missouri,	1,094	345
44 counties,	696	000
Michigan,	653	312
18 counties,	168	000

In most of the counties the number of the business houses, and stores, and lumber yards, exceeds that of the men employed in them.

In some, there are stores and business, without capital, and in others, capital without stores or houses. And other counties are represented to have neither stores, business, house, lumber-yard, capital, nor men, employed in commerce.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS AND ENGINEERS.

The statements concerning the number employed in the learned professions, seem also to be inaccurate. Berks county, in Pennsylvania, with over 64,000 inhabitants, is stated to be destitute of the members of these professions, and several counties, in every state, south and west, have none of these men among them. While, on the other hand, the town of Hanover, N. H., with a population of 2,613, is said to have 356; and Schenectady, in New York, with a population of 6,784, is said to have 362 men devoted to the learned professions, or acting as engineers; and Andover, Mass., whose people number only 5,207, has 180 men employed in a similar manner.

The most glaring and remarkable errors are found in the statements respecting nosology, the prevalence of insanity, blindness, deafness and dumbness, among the people of this nation.

The undersigned have compared these statements with information obtained from other and more reliable sources, and have found them widely varying from the truth; and, more than all, they have compared the statements in one part of the census with those in another part, and have found the most extraordinary discrepancies.

They have examined the original manuscript copy of the census of Massachusetts, prepared by the marshal, which contains the names of each householder, or head of family, and the kind and character of each description of persons in the family; and also the manuscript copy of the same condensed into towns and cities, which contains the kind and character of all persons in the several towns and cities. These are deposited by the marshal in the district clerk's office in Boston, and are open for public inspection. The undersigned have compared these with the printed copies of the same census, both Thomas Allen's and Blair & Rives' editions, and have found between all three a variance of statements.

The first manuscript copy, with the householder's names, gives one account, the second manuscript, the condensed copy, gives another account, and the printed editions give a third and different version of the same classes of facts.

Your memorialists are aware that some of these errors in respect to Massachusetts, and perhaps also in respect to other states, were committed by the marshals. Mr. James Estabrook, deputy marshal, states, that there were 133 colored pauper lunatics in the family of Samuel B. Woodward, in the town of Worcester, Mass.; but on another page he states that there are no colored persons in said Woodward's family.

Mr. William M. Jackson states, on one page, that there are in the family of Jacob Cushman, in the town of Plympton, Mass., four pauper colored lunatics, and one colored blind person, while on another page, he states, that there are no colored persons in the family of said Cushman. And these deputy marshals, Estabrook and Jackson, have affixed their names to these statements, and sent them to Washington, and the world, as facts.

Some errors were also made by the copyist in the clerk's office, in the condensation of the first return of the marshals.

Mr. Beriah Blood states, that there are no colored insane in the town of Pepperell, in Massachusetts, but 15 white insane; on the other hand, the condensed copy states, that there are no white insane, but 15 colored

insane. This statement is again altered in the printed edition, and made correct.

But on comparing the manuscript copy of the census at Boston, with the printed edition of Blair and Rives, the undersigned are convinced that a large portion of the errors were made by the printers, and that hardly any of the errors of the original document are left out.

The following table will exhibit the discrepancies between the statements of the original, and the printed documents, and the facts as ascertained from investigation in the towns of Massachusetts, respecting the colored lunatics and idiots:—

	At Private Charge.			At Public Charge.		
Towns.	Original doc'm't.	Printed doc.	Private inquiry.	Original doc'm't.	Printed doc.	State returns.
Fairhaven,	.	.	.....	2	.	.
Freetown,	2	2	.....	.	.	.
Raynham,	.	.	.....	1	1	.
Swansey,	.	.	.....	2	2	1
Wareham,	.	.	.....	1	1	.
Carver,	1	1	.....	.	.	.
Plympton,	.	.	.....	4	4	.
Hingham,	1	2	.....	.	.	.
Quincy,	.	.	.....	1	1	.
Becket,	1	1	.....	.	.	.
Westfield,	1	.	.....	.	.	.
West Springfield,	.	.	.....	1	1	1
Mendon,	1	.	.....	.	.	.
Warren,	1	1	.....	.	.	.
Worcester,	1	.	.....	133	133	2
Sterling,	.	.	.....	2	2	.
Hubbardston,	.	.	.....	1	1	.
Leominster,	1	1	.....	1	1	.
Winchendon,	1	.	.....	.	.	.
Pepperell,	.	1	.....	.	.	.
Concord,	.	.	.....	1	1	1
Natick,	.	.	.....	4	1	.
Salem,	1	1	.....	2	2	1
Essex,	1	1	.....	1	1	.
Topsfield,	1	.	.....	.	.	.
Andover,	.	.	.....	1	.	1
Pembroke,	.	1	.....	.	.	.
New Bedford,	.	.	.....	.	2	1
Attleboro',	.	.	.....	.	1	.
Rochester,	.	1	.....	.	1	1
Randolph,	.	.	.....	.	1	.
Sandisfield,	.	1	.....	.	2	.
Reading,	.	.	.....	.	3	.
Wilmington,	.	.	.....	.	2	.
Ashby,	.	.	.....	.	1	.
Georgetown,	.	.	.....	.	2	.
Danvers,	.	1	.....	.	1	1
Boston,	2	2	.....	5	5	6
Scituate,	.	5	.....	.	.	.
Stockbridge,	.	1	.....	.	.	.
Bedford,	.	1	.....	.	.	.
Needham,	2	2	.....	.	.	.
Total,	20	27	.....	174	173	16

Thus it will be seen, that the original document finds the colored insane in 28 towns, while the printed edition of Blair and Rives, places them in 35 towns, and each makes them more than ten-fold greater than the state returns, in regard to the paupers; and one edition has given 20,

and the other, 27 self-supporting lunatics, in towns, in which, according to private inquiry, none are to be found.

According to the original and manuscript copy of the census, there were in Massachusetts, 10 deaf and dumb, and 8 blind colored persons, whereas the printed edition of the same document, multiply them into 17 of the former, and 22 of the latter class of unfortunates.

The printed copy of the census declares that there were in the towns of Hingham and Scituate, Mass., 19 colored persons, who were deaf and dumb, blind or insane. On the other hand, the undersigned are informed by the overseers of the poor, and the assessors, who have cognizance of every pauper and tax-payer in the town, that in the last twelve years, no such diseased persons have lived in the town of Scituate; and they have equally certain proof, that none such have for many years lived in Hingham. Moreover, the deputy-marshals neither found, nor made record of, such persons.

The undersigned have carefully compared the number of colored insane and idiots, and of the deaf, and dumb, and blind, with the whole number of the colored population, as stated in the printed edition of the census in every city, town, and county in the United States, and have found the extraordinary contradictions, and improbabilities, that are shown in the following tables:—

MAINE.

Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.	Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.
Biddeford,.....	1	2	Dexter,.....	0	1
Limerick,.....	0	4	Dixmont,.....	0	1
Lymington,*	1	2	Hope,§.....	1	2
Newfield,.....	0	5	Swanville,.....	0	1
Danville,.....	0	1	Unity,.....	0	1
Otisfield,†.....	0	2	Alexander,.....	0	1
Scarboro',.....	0	6	Baring,.....	0	1
Dixfield,.....	0	5	Calais,‖.....	0	1
Gilead,..... ...	0	1	Hartland,.....	0	1
Hebron,†.....	0	1	Madison,.....	0	1
Norway,.....	0	6	Ripley,.....	0	1
Peru,.....	0	3	St. Albans,.....	0	3
Dresden,.....	3	6	Industry,.....	0	3
Edgecomb,.....	0	1	Monmouth,¶.....	1	1
Webster,.....	1	2	New Portland,.....	0	1
Leeds,.....	0	1			
Bradford,.....	0	1	Total,.....	8	69

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Coventry,.....	0	1	Stratham,.....	0	1
Haverhill,.....	1	1	Northampton,.....	0	1
Holderness,.....	0	2	New Hampton,.....	0	1
Atkinson,.....	0	1	Lyman,.....	0	1
Bath,.....	0	1	Littleton,.....	0	1
Lisbon,.....	0	1	Henniker,.....	0	1
Compton,.....	1	1			

MASSACHUSETTS.

Freetown,.....	0	2	Wilmington,.....	0	2
Plympton,.....	2	4	Sterling,.....	0	2
Leominster,.....	0	2	Danvers,.....	0	2

* Has also 2 colored blind.
† Has 2 colored deaf and dumb.
‡ Has 1 colored deaf and dumb.
§ Has 1 deaf and dumb colored.
‖ Has 1 deaf and dumb, and 1 blind col'd.
¶ Has 1 colored deaf and dumb.

Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.	Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.
Massachusetts—Continued.					
Hingham,	2	2	Ashby,	1	1
Georgetown,	1	2	Randolph,	1	1
Carver,	1	1	Worcester,	151*	133
Northbridge,	1	1			
Connecticut.					
Waterford,	2	7			
Vermont.					
Rushford,	0	1	Lyndon,	1	2
Athens,	2	2	Castleton,	4	2
Barnet,	0	1	Fairhaven,	1	1
New York.					
Conewango,	0	1	Westville,	0	1
Olean,	0	1	French Creek,	0	1
Ellington,	0	5	Carroll,	0	1
Sherman,	0	1	Holland,	0	2
Barne,	10	6	Crown Point,	0	1
Shelby,	1	7	Sandy Creek,	0	1
Providence,†	3	2	Hadley,	0	1
Stockholm,	0	1	Parishville,	0	1
Chester,	0	1	Groton,	0	5
Java,	0	1	Dryden,‡	0	2
Lansing,	8	4	Great Valley,	0	1
Leon,	0	1			
New Jersey.					
Stafford,	1	7			
Ohio.					
Greene, Wayne co.,	1	2	Tuscarawas,	0	1
Ellsworth,	0	3	Salem,	1	1
Canfield,	1	1	Liberty,	0	1
Venice,	0	1	Bloomfield,	0	1
Thompson,	1	2	Greenfield,	0	1
Vernon,	2	2	Falls,	1	1
Porter,	0	1	Starr,	0	2
Jefferson, Madison co.,	0	1	Rumley,	0	2
Sharon,	0	1	Chester,	0	1
Montgomery,	1	4	Auburn,	0	2
Vermillion,	0	1	Newbury,	0	1
Greene, Richland co.,	0	1	Burton,	1	1
Hanover,	0	1	Plain,	0	1
Munroe,	0	1	Jefferson, Franklin co.,	0	1
Washington, Preble co.,	0	4	Norwich,	0	1
Wash'gton, Pickaway co.,	0	7	Harrison,	0	3
Spencer,	1	1	Bricksville,	1	1
Jefferson, Richland co.,	0	1	Brooklyn,	0	1
Canaan,	0	1	Green, Clarke co.,	1	2
Sylvania,	1	1	Lewis,	7	7
Amherst,	0	1	Elk,	0	1
Franklin,	0	1	Alexander,	1	1
Bristol,	0	2	Lenox,	0	1
Lordstown,	0	1	Pleasant,	12	8
Indiana.					
Noble,	0	2	Marshall,	1	2
Owen,	0	2	Fulton,	1	1
Marion,	0	1	Bartholomew,	0	1

* Thirty-six of these are under ten years of age.
† Providence has also two deaf and dumb negroes.
‡ Dryden has also two blind negroes.

ILLINOIS.

Towns.	County.	Col'd inhab.	Col'd insane.
Plainfield,	Will,	0	1
	Scott,	4	5
	Marshall,	0	1
	Livingston,	1	1
	Logan,	1	6
	La Salle,	2	1
Council Hill,	Jo. Daviess,	0	1
Wilmington,	Greene,	0	5
Taylor,	Greene,	0	2
South Richwoods,	Greene,	0	1
Township 6, N. 1 E.,	Fulton,	0	1
	De Kalb,	0	2
	Christian,	0	3

PENNSYLVANIA.

Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.	Towns.	Col'd pop.	Col'd insane.
Colebrookdale,	0	2	Ridgebury,	0	1
Bloomfield,	2	3	Le Bœuf,	0	3
Centre,	4	8	Washington, Erie co.,	0	4
Old Codorus,	0	2	Washington, Ind. co.,	0	1
West Providence,	6	3	Little Beaver,	0	1
Armstrong,	0	1	Plum,	8	5
Harios,	3	6	Logan,	0	2
Jay,	2	2	Upper Paxton,	2	2
Greenwood, Millerst'wn, Bor.,	0	2	Oliver, Newport, Bor.,	0	1

MICHIGAN.

Rensellaer,	0	1	Milton,	0	1
Antrim,	0	1	Wheatland,	0	1
Vernon,	0	1	Penfield,	0	1
Unadilla,	0	1	Athens,	0	1
Rollin,	0	1	Bertrand,	0	1
Sandstone,	1	1	Sheridan,	0	1
Glass Lake,	0	1			

IOWA.

Jefferson county,	0	2

DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND, AMONG THE COLORED POPULATION.

Maine.

Towns.	Population.	Blind.	Deaf and dumb.	Towns.	Population.	Blind.	Deaf and dumb.
Lymington,	1	2	.	Hebron,	0	0	1
Scarboro',	0	1	.	Hope,	1	0	1
Raymond,	1	1	.	Calais,	0	1	1
Orono,	1	.	1	Anson,	3	0	2

New Hampshire.

Danville,	0	.	1	New Hampton,	0	.	1
Lee,	0	.	1	Meredith,	8	1	5

Massachusetts.

Carver,	1	.	1	Milford,	5	.	4
Leverett,	0	1	.	Hingham,	2	7	1

Vermont.

Fairfax,	0	.	1	Hartland,	0	1	.
Rupert,	0	1	.				

DEAF AND DUMB, AND BLIND, AMONG THE COLORED POPULATION—Continued.

New York.

Towns.	Population.	Blind.	Deaf and dumb.	Towns.	Population.	Blind.	Deaf and dumb.
Harmony,.....	0	.	.	Sehroon,.....	0	.	1
Poland,.....	0	2	.	Westville,.....	0	1	.
Mina,.....	6	1	.	Rutland,.....	0	.	2
Preston,.....	4	.	4	Ellisburgh,.....	0	.	1
Pharsalia,.....	1	.	1	Harrisburgh,.....	0	1	.
Colden,.....	0	1	.	Parishville,.....	0	1	.
Pike,.....	2	2	.	Stockholm,.....	0	.	1
Dryden,*.....	2	2	.	Providence,*.....	3	.	2

Pennsylvania.

Reading,.....	0	.	1	Shamokin,.....	0	1	.
Colebrookdale,.....	0	1	.	Mifflinburgh,.....	0	.	2
Haycock,.....	0	1	.	Le Bœuf,.....	0	1	2
Ross,.....	0	1	.	Farmington,.....	0	1	1
Franconia,.....	0	.	1				

Ohio.

Marion,.....	0	1	.	Jefferson, Madison co.,	0	1	.
Chatfield,.....	0	.	1	Canaan,.....	0	1	.
Sycamore,.....	0	.	1	Brunswick,.....	1	.	1
Bricksville,†.....	1	1	.	Butler,.....	0	1	.
Falls,.....	1	.	2	Salt Creek,.....	1	.	1
Liberty,†.....	0	1	.	Washington, Pickaway			
York,.....	0	.	1	county,.....	0	1	.
Reed,.....	0	1	.	Jeff'rson,† Richl'd co.,	0	1	.
Unity,.....	0	1	.				

Indiana.

Clifty, Bartholomew co.,	0	2	.	Wayne,.....	0	1	3
Kosciusko co.,.....	0	1	.	Floyd,.....	0	1	.
Madison,.....	0	.	3	Sugar Creek,.....	0	1	.
Scott,.....	0	.	1	Cotton,.....	0	3	.
Madison co.,‡.....	6	.	3				

Michigan.

Porter,.....	0	1	.	Howel,.....	0	1	.

Illinois.

Boone,.....	0	.	1	Township No. 46.			
Scott,.....	4	.	1§	Winnebago co.,.....	0	.	1
Spring Creek,.....	0	.	1				

Iowa.

Jones,.....	0	.	3	Linn,.....	0	2	1

To those, who examine the census in its details, the statement respecting the number of colored insane in these towns and counties, carries on its very face its own refutation; no one, who thus studies the report, can possibly be misled. But these palpable errors are by no means all. There are others, almost as self-evident.

In many towns, all the colored population are stated to be insane; in very many others, two-thirds, one-third, one-fourth, or one-tenth of this

* These towns are each reported to have two colored insane persons.

† Bricksville, Liberty, and Jefferson, according to the census, have each one colored lunatic, in addition to their blind.

‡ Madison county, according to the census, has one colored lunatic.

§ According to the census, Scott has four colored lunatics beside the blind.

ill-starred race are reported to be thus afflicted; and, as if the document delighted to revel in every variety of error, every proportion of the negro population, from seven, where were none, as we have shown in some towns to less than a two thousandth, as is recorded of others, is declared to be a lunatic.

The errors of the census are as certain, if not as manifest, in regard to insanity among the whites as among the colored population.

The Massachusetts Medical Society, through its members, made personal inquiries of almost every householder in the state, who was reported by the marshals to have any colored lunatic, blind, or deaf or dumb persons in his family, and were informed, almost invariably, that no such colored person were in their families, but that such white insane, deaf, dumb, or blind persons, were in their families, which white persons were not reported by the marshals.*

The statistics of ignorance seem to be as loosely obtained, or as inaccurately recorded, as those of education. Your memorialists have examined the reports of the numbers of white persons above 20 years of age, who cannot read and write, and find such singular improbabilities as are shown in the following specimens, which they extract from the sixth census:—

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
Boston, Mass.,	24,487	16,633	670	55,198	1,255	22
New Orleans, La.,	11,042	1,285	110	36,132	171	4
Providence, R. I.,	6,397	5,680	900	12,430	780	62
Richmond, Va.,	3,594	1,256	340	5,538	77	13
Charlestown, Mass.,	3,159	3,362	1,060	6,718	368	54
Louisville, Ky.,	5,144	657	129	9,211	49	5
Detroit, Michigan,	2,745	65	24	4,756	5	1
Taunton, Mass.,	2,491	2,079	834	4,025	190	47

NOTE.—Column 1 contains the number of white persons between 5 and 20 years of age; 2, the number of scholars in academies, and all other schools; 3, ratio per 1,000 of all between 5 and 20 years, in all schools; 4, white persons over 20 years of age; 5, white persons over 20 years, who cannot read and write; 6, ratio per 1,000 of all over 20 years, who cannot read and write.

From these instances, it would appear that the greater proportion of ignorance is found in those places where the opportunities for education are the most liberally offered, and the most extensively used; and that, on the other hand, the least ignorance is found among those people who have the smallest proportion of their children learning to read and write. Boston, whose foreign population is comparatively small, and whose free schools have been open to all, and embraced nearly all, for two hundred years, exhibits the extraordinary spectacle of having a proportion of her children in schools six times greater than, and a proportionate ignorant adult population almost six times as numerous as New Orleans, whose public schools are but of very recent origin, and whose foreign population is very large. The proportion of children at school is almost three times as great in Charlestown, Mass., as that in Charleston, S. C., while the proportion of ignorance is seventy-seven fold greater in the former, than in the latter. A similar comparison is shown between the statements respecting Taunton, Mass., and Detroit, Mich. Several counties

* This error of reporting the white as colored lunatics, is singularly manifested in regard to the state Lunatic Hospital, at Worcester, Mass., under the superintendence of Dr. Samuel B. Woodward. All the patients in the establishment are reported to be colored,

in the southern and western states are stated to have nearly half their adult population unable to read and write, while other counties in the same states are reported to have no white person whatever, over 20 years of age, who are thus uneducated.

Wherever your memorialists have been able to compare the census with the results of the investigations of the state governments, of individuals, or societies, they have found that the national enumeration has fallen far short of the more probable amount.

According to the census there were in Massachusetts, 627 lunatics and idiots, supported at public charge; according to the returns of the overseers of the poor, there were 827 of this class of paupers.

The superintendents of the poor of the state of New York, report 1,058 pauper lunatics within that state; the census reports only 739.

The government of New Jersey report 701 in that state; the census discovers only 442.

The Medical Society of Connecticut discovered twice as many lunatics as the census, within that state. A similar discrepancy was found in Eastern Pennsylvania, and also in some counties of Virginia.

Your memorialists deem it needless to go farther into detail in this matter. Suffice it to say, that these are but specimens of the errors that are to be found in the sixth census, in regard to nosology, education and employments, and they suspect also in regard to other matters therein reported.

The statements of the census, both the assertions and negations are, with few exceptions, given without reservation or qualification, as the whole truth upon the subject investigated. Wherever there was any deficiency of the returns, any defect of the information, any misunderstanding of the meaning of the questions, any misplacement of the figures, or any doubt on the part of those by whom the census was compiled and "corrected at the department of state," as to the accuracy or fulness of the returns, it is so stated in marginal notes, or in the body of the document. "No return," in regard to employments, capital and productions, stands against York county, Va., Bryan and Houston counties, in Georgia, Pickens and Sumter counties, Alabama, Caldwell, Claiborne and Union counties, in Louisiana, and Hillsboro' and Musquito counties, Florida, and in the last mentioned two counties, the reason is given for the want of "returns." "No returns" is stated to be received of the capital employed in commerce in Rutherford county, N. C. It is noted in respect to Smyth county, Va., that "two persons, owners of the stores, of the above 11, refused to answer questions." In regard to the employments, productions, and capital of Harris county, Georgia, the census states that "the return is imperfect in consequence of the refusal of the citizens to answer questions."

In respect to the tanneries in three counties in Georgia, three in Tennessee, and one in Kentucky, the correctors of the census state in notes, "From the above number of tanneries reported, and the very small quantity of hides tanned, it is probable that the assistant marshal has returned plantation tanneries, where one or more vats are used. They are therefore rejected in the general aggregate." Likewise, in regard to the cotton manufactories in Todd county, Ky., and Sumner county, Tenn., the same authority notices the error, "supposed to be cotton-spinning machines, and not carried into the addition." Of the returns of the number

of newspapers printed in three counties of Kentucky, and in three of Virginia, the same annotator warns the public of the mistake, noting "number of the editions, and not carried into the addition." In respect to the value of manufactures in Addison county, Vermont, Greene county, Alabama, three counties in Missouri, five in New York, and Georgetown, District of Columbia, it is noted, "supposed to be the number of manufactories, instead of the value of manufactures, and not carried into the addition;" and lastly, the marshal, in his return of the quantity of fuel consumed in iron manufacture in New Orleans, stated that the quantity was "estimated," and not measured.

These explanations and reservations are confined to the thirty-eight counties and two cities, and to the specific matters therein above quoted. All the rest of the statements of the census, both positive and negative, are given without qualification, in regard to all the other counties, cities and towns in the Union, and in regard to all other subjects specified in the law which directed the enumeration.

With the above forty exceptions, the document is understood to assert, that the information was received, and the returns were made, in regard to all the subjects of investigation from all the parts and people of these United States; that the classes of population, their employments, capital, and productions were accurately counted or measured; that their means of education, and their disorders of mind or sense, were faithfully ascertained, and all reported, and these reports were "corrected at the department of state." It is understood that wherever there were any people, or matters specified, it is so stated, and how many, and how much; and whenever there were none, it is so stated in blank. The negations are given on the same authority as the assertions; that no cotton is raised in Maine, no paper manufactured in Georgia, and that no persons are employed in agriculture, in Wayne county, Pa., and none employed in agriculture, commerce, mining, manufactures, trades, navigation of the ocean, lakes, rivers or canals, in the learned professions, or in engineering, in Macon county, Ill., or in other counties, or towns, which are published as blank in regard to any, or all of these details.

These statements are all made in the same manner, and are understood to be positively asserted.

In view of these facts, the undersigned, in behalf of said Association, conceive that such documents ought not to have the sanction of Congress, nor ought they to be regarded as containing true statements relative to the condition of the people, and the resources of the United States. They believe it would have been far better to have had no census at all, than such an one as has been published, and they respectfully request your honorable bodies to take such order thereon, and to adopt such measures for the correction of the same, or if the same cannot be corrected, of discarding and disowning the same, as the good of the country shall require, and as justice and humanity shall demand.

EDWARD JARVIS,
J. WINGATE THORNTON,
WM. BRIGHAM.

Art. III.—THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT:

considered with reference to its condition, policy, prospects, and remedies.

Prefatory to the continuation of our remarks on the subject of the post-office department, it may be well to pass cursorily in review the annual report of the post master general, made subsequently to the writing of the article in the Merchants' Magazine, for December, 1844.

In that document, the head of the department expresses his own surprise, that he had not "been compelled to curtail the service below its present amount." And he assigns as a matter of congratulation for the President, that during his and the present Post Master General's administration of the department, its "current expenses have been met by its current revenue, and the amount of service is now greater than at the commencement of the year 1841." At another place he states this excess to be 413,100 miles of service annually.

He further says, the receipts of the department, during the past year, have been $4,237,285 83, and "the total amount of expenditure *settled* and *paid*, for the same period, is $4,296,867 70."

At first blush, this exhibition of the operations and condition of the department is most creditable to its administration, and flattering to the hopes of the country. But, upon "a sober second thought," it will not be found so well calculated to allay apprehensions, nor to do away with the presentiment of the increasing inability of the department to sustain itself, which both the head of the department and committees of Congress have united in expressing, for the last three years. And if it be not in politics, it may be in casuistry, a problem of some solemnity, how far it is justifiable, on the part of the head of a department of government, for the glorification of an expiring administration, or from any other motive, to present to Congress, and to the country, only such a selection of facts and data as are calculated, in the absence of their proper concomitants, to produce an illusory impression as to the true condition and prospects of such department. It certainly is calculated to cast an undue weight of responsibility upon the incoming administration, and amounts to an imprudent putting off, instead of a manly providing against, evils that must be themselves conquered, or be allowed to conquer the destinies of the department. We surely have no motive to exceed, in any course of remark, the proper line of just criticism upon the post master general's report. But we are not satisfied that the information given in his last report, is such as properly represents the true situation, and the actual prospects of his department to the country.

When he states, in a spirit that manifestly is designed to encourage the public mind in respect to the department, that the mail service is 413,106 miles greater than it was in 1841, why did he omit to say, that it is, nevertheless, no less than 961,152 miles less than it was in the preceding year of 1840!

And why not say, that the aggregate revenue of the department for the last year, (ending June 30,) is less than it has been for any other year since 1838, and only $2,258 *more* than it was in that year!

Less	in	1844	than	in 1839, by	$240,334,
"	"	"	"	1840, by	302,080,
"	"	"	"	1841, by	142,032,
"	"	"	"	1842, by	308,961,
"	"	"	"	1843, by	58,740.

Thus the plain matter of fact is, the department had *improved* in its revenue, on the 30th of June, 1843, only at the rate of $2,258 beyond what it was six years ago, or, in 1838; and, as compared with its condition four years ago, (or 1840,) it is $302,080 per annum worse off in revenue, and 961,152 miles per annum worse off in service! One would think that this reverse, if mere matter of personal or political glorification were in view, had better be suppressed than told by the head of the department. Nevertheless, if no particular blame attaches to the administrators of its affairs, during this alarming relapse in its condition—and we do not pretend that any does—beyond the perpetuation of the niggardly and distrustful policy, and practices, and party observances, mentioned in our former article, we do not perceive why it would not have been more creditable to the head of the department to present fairly and frankly this downward direction of its prospects, and cast the responsibility manfully upon Congress, which has the power of providing the necessary remedies. Besides, would not this be a more just and friendly proceeding towards the incoming, or new administration, which is soon to assume the affairs of the department? The country has a right to know the true condition of governmental affairs at an epoch like the present, that no more than a just and merited degree of accountability be imposed upon their newly chosen officers.

It cannot be a matter of dispute, that such has been the onward movement of enterprise, capital, and business, and of population, throughout the United States, since 1840, as should have ensured a very large, if not an unprecedentedly large, increase of both the revenue and mail transportation of the department, instead of showing it on the retrograde in respect to both particulars, or even remaining stationary. And this consideration bespeaks, still more emphatically than the data above furnished, the great extent of diminution in its ability and means that has been effected by the causes to which we have heretofore adverted, and which are still in active operation.

The seemingly illusory expose of the department's condition, by the post master general, which we have pointed out, leads us to hope that the committee on the post-office, in the House, or Senate, will not omit to make an early call upon the department for an explanation of the statement, that "the amount of expenditure *settled* and *paid* for" in the last year, is $4,296,867 70; and whether that sum is meant to be understood as the actual aggregate of its indebtedness and expenditures for the year's service? The language employed is not explicit, and the true intent of it is not clear.

The department's report admits, that "further extension and usefulness of the department would have been made, but for embarrassments and difficulties it had to encounter by the operations of private mails, established upon the leading lines of post-roads connecting the important commercial cities and towns of the United States."

This is, no doubt, "the head and front" of the department's calamities. But it is a disease which, like most diseases in the human system, has been engendered by its own mismanagement and want of foresight, in the particulars defined in our former article. Although the expedients of the department to save itself have been numerous, they have not been successful, nor aptly chosen. Divorce it from party politics—reduce the tariff of postages—adopt a more liberal, efficient, and less expensive sys-

tem of administration, and break up the express, or private mail arrangements, not by penal enactments and odious prosecutions, but by exceeding them in despatch, while you cheapen the rate of intercommunication on all "the leading lines of post-roads connecting the important cities and towns," where now these offsprings of your oppressive policy have effected the largest drain upon your sources of revenue, and the department will be re-instated in its power; it will have the requisite ability to proceed in its annual and accustomed diffusion and extension of its benefits; and, once more, it will become, as it will once more deserve to be, the favorite branch of our popular system of government, equable in its blessings as the dews of heaven.

In a note to our former article, (p. 523, vol. xi.) the reader was informed of the fact, that the general post-office of the English government, in London, has only *one* account to settle with all the post-offices in Ireland, and only *one* with all the offices in Scotland. All the revenues of the former are concentrated at, and their expenditures supervised and controlled from, one office in Dublin. The like system is carried out in Scotland, through one office in Edinburg. This subdivision of the system manifestly renders accountability of subordinates more efficient, because it brings them nearer, in person and practice, to the post of accountability; and it cannot be doubted that, in like manner, as the territorial distance that separates the superior and subordinate is lessened, and personal intercourse between them is more ready, less expensive, and more frequent, the service cannot fail to be measurably more efficient, more safe, and more economical, because more closely inspected and better understood by both parties.

Is there any reason why a corresponding concentration of the local operations of the general post-office of the United States, in the several states, might not, with equal, if not even greater, advantage than results from such arrangement of the English post-office, be adopted here?

Very like this was the system of assessing and collecting the direct taxes in the several towns, counties, and states of the Union, during and subsequently to the late war. Instead of a deputy collector in each township, appointed by a single head at Washington, and paying over his collections and settling his accounts under a single head there, the deputies were the appointees of, and directly accountable to, district collectors, to whom were assigned, respectively, large territorial divisions to supervise, and these, only, made their returns and settled their accounts at Washington. Why, in this system, have we not the best that can be devised for the post-office department? All the details of the one service, are easily assimilated to the other service.

It certainly ought not be an argument against this proposition, that it would partake less of *centralization of influence* than the present order of things. Such would be its obvious workings; and for this, the people of the states will generally prefer it.

But, can any practical mind doubt that it would lead to a much more satisfactory administration of the mail establishment and post-office services, than can be had from the present system, which sends every grievance to Washington for redress, and in which the distance, and delays, and absence of prompt, personal explanations, unite to discourage, in most cases, all hope of redress, be the cause of complaint as it may?

The salaries of the one hundred and fifty persons who, under the pre-

sent arrangement, are thought to be necessary at Washington, mostly as clerks, to adjust the accounts and conduct the correspondence of the department, would scarcely exceed, on an average, fifty per cent of their amount at Washington, for the same class of services in the several states. It is nearly as certain, that their number would diminish in a similar ratio. And this double process would thus effect a useful saving, to aid the great desideratum of a reduction in the rates of postage. Subsistence is cheaper, and of course labor must be cheaper, in the several states, than at Washington. The habits of industry, too, saying nothing of moral tendencies, are more in unison with economy, and despatch, and efficiency, in business transactions, in the several states, than at Washington.

Who can doubt, that the mail contracts would, under the proposed system, be made much more understandingly, and thousands upon thousands of dollars cheaper in each state, than it is in the nature and opportunities of the present system, to have them made? It is these savings of thousands, also, that are wanted, to aid in the reduction of postage.

It has been too often and too clearly demonstrated, to need elucidation here, that the requirement of *prepayment* of postage, or an increase of it when not prepaid, would result in the saving of many thousands of dollars annually to the department, which are now lost in the accounts of the dead letter office. These thousands are wanted in aid of the reduction of postage.

Mail depredations have, according to the post master general's last report, become a national stigma. "The number of cases of mail depredations reported to the department for three years preceding the 12th of October, 1844, is nineteen hundred and thirty-four." Such is his account. "One hundred mail depredators," he adds, "have been arrested and tried during the same period." Less than one in nineteen. Now is not this an evil sufficiently alarming to call for a more efficient system of both prevention and detection, than the present system affords? No less than eighty-seven persons are reported as employed in 1843, as agents of the department "for detection and punishment of mail depredations."* Now the thousands, and tens of thousands expended annually to support this corps, which may be mainly dispensed with under the more direct supervision of the mail arrangements which the proposed system will secure, are wanted in aid of a reduction in the rates of postage. All these dollars that are saved, are, upon the homely but sound axiom of Poor Richard, equal to so many dollars earned in the administration of the post-office servive of the United States.

Then, as the commencement of a suitable reform, let the enormously expensive and unwieldy organization of the general post office department at Washington be broken up, and its parts transferred to the different states, or at least to some other convenient subdivisions of the Union, with an assistant post master general as the head of each division, fully invested with power to conduct the financial and prudential affairs of the department in his division—to make the contracts for transporting the mails in the manner, and at the periods which the law shall direct; and also empowered to make removals and appointments, subject, if need be, to the confirmation of the post master general at Washington, in cases that fall below a given grade of salary or perquisites, and to the confirma-

* See Senate Report, No. 299, June 15, 1844, p. 218.

tion by the President and Senate in all other cases. By stated quarterly reports from each assistant post master general, the statistics of finance, of service, of appointments, of dismissals of contracts, &c. &c. of each division will be made to the head at Washington, reducing the number of returns and accounts that are now transmitted at large expense and accumulated at Washington, from tens of thousands annually, to less than two hundred! Let the weight and bulk of the business be thus transferred to the local departments within the states, nearer the people, and it will, according to the teachings of all experience, be done with greater efficiency, exactness, promptness, economy, and satisfaction to the public judgment. Abuses will be reformed before they grow so old as to fester upon the vitals of the administration. And, what is not without its just influence, the patronage of the department will be more evenly apportioned among the states, according to their business contributions for its support.

With a distribution of the department among the states, who can doubt, moreover, that a most favorable influence will be produced in its favor in reference to the embarrassments with which it has to contend, in the onerous exactions of the railroad companies for transporting the mail? These would be better understood by the mass of the people, and the sympathies of the people would become active to control the action of the state legislatures, whose power is equal to effect a proper adjustment of terms of service between those companies and the department. The millions of dollars now proposed by the post master general to be appropriated from the treasury, to purchase rights of use in common with these corporations, would be saved, and an alliance, not promising, in practice, profit or convenience to the government, as a railroad partner, will be avoided. This is no small consideration, when it is considered that the *condition*—the *sine qua non*—of reducing postage, put forth by the post master general, is, that the government make this most questionable purchase for the department, of a right of way on the railroads of the country, to be owned in common with them. If made, who does not see that it would lead to a perpetual and endless conflict of interests?

Apart from this organic reform of the post office department, to further the reduction of its expenditures, the great desideratum is to secure to it the business that is now drawn off by private expresses on the principal routes. This cannot be accomplished without surpassing in utility to the public, either in cheapness or speed, or in both, *these active agents of business men*. And how can this be accomplished? It is useless to attempt it, except by recourse to other and different facilities, than are within *their* command. It will not be enough, in order to compete with them, to despatch mail bags by the fastest lines of railroad cars and steamboats; for these will, with the same despatch, and *pari passe*, transport hither and thither the private express men. And as *their* receipts are not needed to sustain other runners on unprofitable routes, as is the case with the post office department, their compensation for the same service, between commercial points, may always be *below* that which would alone compensate the government's service, each having otherwise only the same facilities. The only resource against this rivalry, which has been, or can be, developed, outside of our odious system of fines and penalties, is to be found in the wonderful element of intercommunication and correspondence, which Professor Morse has subdued into practical use—

eclipsing in rapidity all other and known agents, and utterly baffling all former calculations. The electro magnetic telegraph, perfectly used and regulated, will accomplish this desired result; and it will protect the department against all rivalry, if in the hands of the government; and this at a cheaper rate of expenditure, both of construction and administration, than has been dreamed of by the generality of minds. By aid of this new and wonderful element, the government may afford to send a communication of ordinary mercantile length, from Boston or New York to New Orleans, as cheap—that is, for the same price—as the private express man can take it from Boston to New York, or from New York to Baltimore; and, instead of consuming from nine to thirteen days in doing it, and as many more days to bring the answer, the government may transmit it while the express man is putting on his boots, and take back the answer before he can get buttoned up in his overcoat! Few persons, as yet, understand the capacity of the telegraph for business—its adaptation to the transmission of the most minutely extended details. It will convey, with the utmost precision, a correspondence that consists of decimal fractions, as well as one which embodies only the most simple and ordinary terms of language. Every phrase and every sentence that a man can write with a pen, upon paper before him, the telegraph can write, with equal distinctness and legibility, at the distance of one thousand or ten thousand miles, when so far constructed.

Nor is this all. By a most simple arrangement of words with numbers, now about issuing from the press, and to be used as one would use a dictionary, correspondence by the telegraph may be conducted with the most impenetrable secrecy in respect to all persons except the persons who are parties to the correspondence. The attendants, or managers of the telegraph, can no more than others decipher the meaning, or subject matter, of the communications that are written. They (the attendants) become as much of an automaton as the pen or instrument which they operate. The whole business of the merchant, or other person, who desires to make a secret correspondence with his partner, or friend, at a distance, is (having first agreed on a key to be used by them) to write down at his own desk the words and figures that will, according to such key, convey his meaning, hand it to the attendant of the telegraph, who thereupon transcribes it at the point of its destination, without knowing a single idea it conveys; and he then returns the original manuscript to the owner, who retains it instead of making a copy for preservation. The fac simile is written at the point of destination, and placed in the hands of his partner or friend. The time and expense of a copyist is saved; no espionage, either at home or on the way-side, can pry into the secrets of such a correspondence. And this feature in the character of this wonderful invention, places it even higher, in point of security to correspondence, than the existing system of letter writing, through the mails, ever has been made.

But, to return to the problem of expense, and to the question of productiveness, of this new element of intercommunication.

Supposing the government were the exclusive proprietors of the right of use, as it may become without waiting to settle any question of doubtful constitutional power, it may construct a line that shall consist of half a dozen independent instruments at each end of a route, at an expense not exceeding $500 per mile.

Suppose it to be 228 miles from New York city to Washington city—the expense of construction would be $114,000.

The interest on that sum annually, at 6 per cent, would be	$6,840
The expense of office rent, at two termini, may be set down at	2,000
The six instruments, or twelve, including both termini, would employ, say, eighteen persons, at a salary of $800 per annum each,	14,000
Fuel, batteries, and contingencies, per annum, will not exceed	500
Total annual expense,	$23,740

A less sum by $6,860 than is paid by the post-office department to the railroad company for mail service on the single line betwen Baltimore and Philadelphia alone.*

Supposing each line to be employed only on an average of sixteen hours per day, during the day and night, and conveyed at the rate of only six words per minute, (and Professor Morse asserts its power to be about double that rate,) the six circuits, or twelve instruments, would convey, daily, between Washington and New York city, 69,120 words. If the business communications averaged fifty words each, (and this will be found quite sufficient, in practice, for business purposes,) the above number would make a fraction over 1,382 communications or letters per day, or 691 each way. Suppose only twelve and a half cents were charged for each communication thus sent, the proceeds would be $172 75 per day. Suppose the telegraph were worked on week days only, or 313 days in the year, the annual income would be $54,070 75 on this single line. Deduct from this, the above estimated expense of the line per annum, $23,740, and we have an excess of $30,330 75 per annum, besides six per cent interest on the investment, to aid the post-office department in defraying the expense of unproductive routes of mail transportation, or wherewith to pay the expense of the ordinary mail transportation that will still be required (at a greatly reduced expense) on the same route—and postage reduced likewise, thirty-three per cent from present rates.

It will be perceived, that the above estimate leaves out of its account all interchange of communications between Washington and Baltimore; Washington and Philadelphia, and Washington and other points of business lying between itself and New York, such as Wilmington, Princeton, &c. It also leaves out of account all interchange of communications between Baltimore and Philadelphia, and Baltimore and New York, and Baltimore and intermediate places; also between Philadelphia and New York, and Philadelphia and intermediate places towards both New York and Baltimore. These omitted communications would more than equal those on the main line, as estimated; and of course employ an equal additional number of circuits and instruments. Supposing the main line and these omitted lines were, on an average of the year, only to double the number of the communications sent, and the average price were to be for the second half—say between Philadelahia and New York, and intermediate places, and between Philadelphia and Washington, and intermediate places, only six and a quarter cents per letter, the excess of income on the second half, over expenses, besides paying six per cent interest on the investment for construction, would be $3,295 37 per annum; making

* See our former article, p. 535, vol. xi.

an aggregate excess, over all expenses, and six per cent interest on the cost of construction, of $33,625 37, annually on this one route; and, without regard to despatch, reducing the rate of postage below all reasonable expectation and complaint.

By taking the aggregate of the business of the post-offices of New York city, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington, and it will be calculated to astonish one to perceive how small a portion of the aggregate will be required to produce the above result. We have not, perhaps, the latest statistics of this description before us. But by a document that is before us, communicated to the House of Representatives by the post master general, at the second session of the 27th Congress, (January 27, 1842,*) giving a statement of the nett revenue of each post-office in the Union, for the year ending June 30, 1841, we find that the nett revenue was

At the New York office,.....	$328,323 92
At the Philadelphia office,.....	167,677 50
At the Baltimore office,.....	85,296 92
At the Washington office,.....	9,102 56
Making a total of.....	$590,400 90

Now the aggregate proposed to be performed of all this business, by the telegraph, is but ($54,070 75 and $27,035 37) $81,106 12. As the average price of our telegraphic communication is put at about half of the current rates of postage, the foregoing aggregate may be supposed to represent double its amount of the above named aggregate of business of the offices that we have named, or $162,212 24 of the $590,400 90, still being less than 33 per cent of it.

The experience of the world is, that in proportion as you can both quicken and cheapen intercommunication between business points, you will increase the number of intercommunications. "Thus, the letters passing weekly through the London office previous to the establishment of day mails, were but 36,000; the number now is 170,000,"—and this increase is attributable mainly to "the greater frequency and despatch of letters."† The increasing daily number of passengers on every line of railroad that has been constructed, will furnish ample illustration of this same unvarying law of business.

Can any one believe that, with a telegraphic line in operation between Washington and New York, working with the cheapness and despatch above described, and with the old mail-bag system also in operation on the same route, and at a reduced rate of postage, there would be any inducement for private letter-carriers to remain on that line, though no penal law should be interposed to deter them? What would be the result of the telegraph, on the line mentioned, would be the result of it, if put into operation, on every other principal line that now tempts private expresses to come into competition with the post-office arrangements. As to coming into competition with Professor Morse's lightning, the idea is laughable. They would retire—or what is alone probable to remain of their arrangements, is the package system, that will not largely interfere with the post-office revenue, when the rates of postage shall be down

* Ex. Doc. No. 65, vol. 2.

† See Appendix to Post Master General's Annual Report, Dec. 3, 1842.

to a satisfactory public convenience. No arrangement either can, or perhaps ought to, stop that business. Then the two elements of despatch, that the present mail arrangements and the proposed telegraphic arrangements would combine, would drive out of profitable employ every other species of competition, and would multiply, as well as secure to the receipts of the post-office department, all the sources of revenue which are essential to its support, and at the same time enable the department to reduce the tariff of postage at least thirty-three per cent, and probably fifty per cent below the now established rates. It would do more; it would command a system of despatch that, until our day, the world has never witnessed, and only the most far-seeing philosophic minds ever before conceived to be practicable. This alone will be worth millions of dollars annually to the business of our widely extended country, and enable the post-office department to attain the highest approach to omniscience, within the limits of the Union, that human wants or human agency need aspire to. This power of giving thought the distinctive, legible embodiment of language from any given point to any other given point in the Union, however distant, INSTANTANEOUSLY, is indeed sublime, and worthy the adoption of an energetic government like our own. It is the *ne plus ultra* of competition, as it is of desire. And for it to exist, unimproved by the government, would bespeak a sluggishness that well would deserve to be visited with every calamitous embarrassment. It cannot exist unimproved by private enterprise, if it be true that the government can *afford* to neglect it.

All our preceding estimates have proceeded on the supposition of a tariff of postage for telegraphic correspondence below the current rates of postage, throwing in also the difference of despatch. But it will rationally occur to every mind, that, while the effect of the telegraphic communication, at a low rate of expense, will be to drive off private expresses, the ordinary mail postage being reduced to at least fifty per cent of the present rates, the telegraphic rate will bear to be higher, say equal to the present rates of postage, except that it should be graduated to the decimals and half decimals of our coin. Again, as neither darkness nor storm, fog, cold, nor heat exerts any hinderance to the operations of the telegraph, it may be among the rules of its administration, for the rate to be somewhat higher for communications sent after a certain hour in the the evening, and prior to a certain hour in the morning, or out of business hours. This, with many other regulations, will be decided by experience.

It has occurred to the speculations of some minds, that it will be difficult to preserve the telegraphic wires against the violence and injuries of wantonness and malice. But, the same legal protection thrown around them, as is thrown around railroad property, and other public and private property, will be equal to the security which any of these enjoy. When window glass was first proposed for general use, the same objection was made to it, and obviously with equal grounds of apprehension. But there is a moral sense that grows up for the protection of all that is felt to be for the universal good of man, and however fragile be the nature of the latter, the sensitiveness of the former is beautifully proportioned to it. So, when railroads were first proposed, how sanguine were many that their great exposure through desolate places, would render them unsafe and dangerous to travel. Yet, how small a term of actual experience has

removed all these apprehensions! The engine now travels with its cars containing hundreds of confiding and unconcerned passengers, through the darkness of midnight, and the blasts of the tempests, at the rate of twenty and thirty miles the hour, with the same trust to the undisturbed continuity of its iron track, as if destiny itself had decreed it impossible for an interruption to exist. When these are the results of an enlightened enterprise, and of moral influence, what of sober reality can be left for apprehension in respect to the security of the telegraph, in its most exposed condition? Moreover, for nine months past, it has stood in perfect security on the exposed and sparsely populated line of the railroad between Baltimore and Washington, as also amid the densely populated streets of those cities, and the universal sentiment which it inspires, without a syllable of existing law for its special protection, is that of reverence and regard, wonder and delight!

Yet wantonness and malice will exist, and may, at times in their waywardness, spread their violence upon this, as well as upon any and every other object. Perfect exemption from them is not to be claimed for the telegraph. There are, however, two considerations in offset, to any occasional injury of the kind, either designed or accidental. The first is, that the merest trifle of expense—that of soldering together the wire, when broken—will make the repairs. The other, and far more important consideration is, that as both time and distance are comparatively annihilated by the telegraph, after the various lines shall have been once constructed over the various leading routes, the interruption of any wire, or more, will not cut off communication—as, the alternative, in such case, will be only to send round, through any circuitous lines, that which otherwise would have been transmitted on the *direct* line. For instance, suppose the line between Philadelphia and Baltimore, was interrupted—it would require only a few minutes longer to adjust a transmission of the desired correspondence between those places, on the line leading to New York, thence to Albany, thence to Buffalo, thence to Pittsburg, via. Cleaveland, if need be, thence to Baltimore! only keep in mind the action of the telegraph at the speed of eighty thousand miles a second, and it will readily be comprehended, how hopeless the thought of ever suffering any serious interruption in its use, after the great points of the country have been once *wired* together. It would require a simultaneous interruption of all lines approaching to, or proceeding from, a given point, to isolate that point from the system,—or speaking more technically, to throw it out of the circuit, and then, a short delay would cause its reunion. Various details that might, perhaps, be interesting to the reader, could be here presented in further elucidation of the wonderous workings of this wonderful invention. There is a wide and interesting field of speculative conjecture opened to the mind, as to the effects that will be produced upon interests, commercial, industrial, and social, by thus annihilating time and distance in the intercommunications of a widely distended population like ours. As to the effects of bringing State-street, in Boston, Wall-street, in New-York, Chestnut-street, in Philadelphia, and the market of New Orleans, all into juxta-position—*all into one street*, as it were! But, we forbear to indulge any problems of the kind here—our purpose being only to glance at the elements which the nation has for the protection of its invaluable system of mail arrangements against competition—and for the enlargement and simultaneous cheapening of the facilities of correspond-

ence. Other minds will direct, and other hands mould, these elements into proper consistency and harmony of action. Our main effort has been, to lay bare the quarry, and sever from the mass the suitable block for such a statue as would suit the genius of our age and people, and become our government to call into being. The mind's eye of the artist may see it complete, through its unhewn encasements. But others will not, and much less be benefited by it, until the order of government shall be heard, and the toil of the sculptor shall be commanded for the service. One question, only, remains to be considered, in this whole matter—will the public—the business community, make use of the telegraph, when constructed?

This question may best be answered in Yankee fashion—by asking another. Can the business community *afford* to do without it when constructed? If so, it will stand out in contradiction to the history of every other great improvement in the facilities of intercommunication. If it will clearly be for their interest to use it, they will use it, and not otherwise. Establish the course of a business man's interest, and it is not uncertain which direction he will take. When turnpikes were first instituted, and it was discovered that by their superior smoothness, and evenness, as compared with the common highway, larger burthens, with equal or greater speed, could be transported over them by only the same power necessary for smaller burthens on the common roads, business men preferred them to the latter, because they saw their interest in so doing, even at the expense of toll. When canals cheapened transportation beyond both public roads, and turnpikes, the latter were again abandoned, to a great extent, for the former. When railroads demonstrated the still farther gain in power, and speed, and consequently in cheapness, public roads, turnpikes, and canals, were still further and alike deserted for the advantages of the railroads. In fact, who can now afford to travel on business in his own carriage, or transport merchandise with his own team, over the same direction with a railroad? Every prudent man leaves his horses and oxen in their stalls, rather than use them where steam can be hired to do his work. He is a gainer by it—that is the sole reason he cannot afford do otherwise, because his neighbor, and rival in business, has enterprise to save time and money by doing so. He must keep pace with the enterprise and despatch that are practised by his competetor in business, or he soon falls in the rear, and his business fails, and he fails with his business. This is the simplest law of cause and effect, and within every body's comprehension. No tradesman can afford to have his neighbor and cotemporary in business live in the practice of opening his store at an early hour in the morning, and have his own doors closed until some hours afterwards. The one would secure all the prompt, stirring, active customers, and the other only the dilatory and profitless class, if any. Whether willing, or not, therefore, men must live up to the highest spirit of enterprise of their day, or fall in the rear and be over-run by the onward, over towering activity of others. This rule of action, this fundamental law of prosperous industry, is seen, is felt, is proclaimed, distinctly, in the ways of all business operations. If one apothecary in a village, or city ward, keep open doors any given number of hours on the Sabbath, all others engaged in the same business must do so likewise, or customers must desert them on that day, and will be most likely thereafter to do so on other days. Hence, agreements regulating these hours are found to

exist among apothecaries, in most places, to prevent one from having an advantage over another. So, on the London Exchange, the hour of assembling is 4 o'clock, and at 4¼ it is "high change," at half past 4 it ceases, "when beadles go round with large bells, with which they make such a deafening noise that the crowd is soon dispersed, the gates are locked, and no one allowed to enter until next day."* Thus, from the necessity of the case—*ex necessitate rei*, as the lawyers would say, he who would compete with the active, must himself be active; and the loss of a day may be the loss of a fortune.

With the telegraph in operation, between Boston and New-York, for instance, who would, on business of any moment, and especially on business connected with the reciprocal trade of the two markets, wait the dilatory progress of mails by which to send or recive information of interest, though transported by steam power, when he can at a slight additonal expense, or perhaps at none additional, command the agency of *lightning*, to bear his message? He hereby can obtain his answer, even before the mail bag, carried by steam, has wound its way out of sight of the wharf whence it started! Could he afford to wait the delay of the former, when he knows, or has reason to suspect, that a watchful and enterprising cotemporary has recourse to the latter? Such a conclusion would be in violation of all the rules of prudence, of economy, of self-interest, than a sense of which, in the human bosom, even the lightning's speed is not quicker in time, or distance.

We showed the energetic, the calculating, will use the telegraph, wherever constructed, and all others must do so, in self defence. And hence it is an agency that can properly, and safely, be in the custody of government alone, under whose administration of its almost superhuman facilities, it would be kept alike open to all, and be monopolized by none. Only the heavier, grosser matters of correspondence will find relief in the facilities of the common mail arrangements. Even the package business of the express man will find itself compelled to pay tribute to the telegraph; for through it, convenience will dictate the transmission of orders in advance of his leaving, or even after his having left one terminus, and before arriving at the other terminus of his route, that they may be executed in readiness for his return. In fine, every interest, political, social, commercial, and industrial, will find the use of the telegraphic facilities *sine qua non*, as indispensable to success as the morning napkin is to comfort and cleanliness, wherever and whenever it shall once be established. It is destined to effect a revolution in the business, the social, political, commercial and industrial relations of men, such as neither the more potential physical power of steam, nor the noiseless influence of the compass, has developed, gigantic and sublime, to the contemplative mind, as the results of each have been, and are, and are to be. To rob Jove of his thunder, and Neptune of his trident, have been deemed achievements of almost superhuman effort. But science has developed, that the electric spark, without which Jove could have no thunder, allied with the energetic force, without which Neptune could have no trident, embodies a principle mightier than either, and even this at last has been subdued and suborned to the convenience of man, and of the business world! Who is so short-sighted as to believe it can lay dormant? It only needs the plastic genius

* Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, Vol. 8, p. 389.

of a master, and the careful means of government, having the advancement of popular convenience in view, to render its discovery an incomparable blessing to our country.

Art. IV.—THE RAILROAD MOVEMENT.

ACCUMULATION OF CAPITAL—RAILROADS—THEIR IMPORTANCE, SOCIAL AND COMMERCIAL.

The recovery of the commercial world from the disastrous revulsions of the last decade, is marked by a new direction given to the employment of surplus capital, which, in consequence of the long continued and universal peace, accumulates in all countries with a rapidity never before known. In Great Britain, official data exists which enables a close approximation to the progress of accumulation. Among them, the expenditures of the imperial government are very striking. In the ten years ending in 1815, the government expenses were £860,677,615; in the ten years ending in 1843, £486,772,568, being a less amount by £373,905,047, drawn from the people in the last decade, than in that which closed with the war. The money drawn from the people in the first period, was mostly sent out of the kingdom, and lost or destroyed in the wars of Europe. Since that period, not only have all the expenditures of the kingdom been confined within its own limits, and paid to its own people, but near £50,000,000 of the debt has been reimbursed, while an increased population has been employed exclusively in adding to the national wealth. The people must have been able to have provided as large an expenditure during the latter as in the former period, had it been necessary. They were not called upon to do so, and therefore a sum equal to near £400,000,000 has been absorbed in other uses. The manner of its accumulation is indicated in the sums returned insured against fire, the amount of personal property chargeable with legacy duty, and the amount on deposit in savings banks, in each year, with the progress of railroads, as follows:—

	Amount insured.	Savings deposits.	Subject to legacy duty.	Railways.
1801,	£232,242,225	£.....	£ 4,107,514	£.....
1811,	366,704,800	.....	16,622,585	.....
1821,	408,037,332	4,370,201	34,922,682	1,500,000
1831,	526,655,332	13,507,565	39,432,397	35,000,000
1841,	681,539,839	24,474,689	43,130,000	60,000,000

In addition to these items, must be put down some £100,000,000 sent out of the country for foreign stocks, mining and banking operations, &c. This serves to show the prodigious increase which capital undergoes, and the necessity for some means of employing it. It has unfortunately been the case, that since the war, there has been, periodically, a new direction given to the employment of capital, consequent upon revulsion and loss of confidence, growing out of the injudicious mode of previous investments. The first serious disaster occurred in 1825, when the rage of speculation took the direction of foreign government stocks, and of which, in two or three years, £52,000,000 sterling was taken up in the London market, embracing the promises of almost all nations in Europe and South America, nearly all of which have since failed, and the money lent them has

been totally lost. The recovery from that revulsion, caused capital to run into bank and company stock, both in England, her colonies, Europe and America, embracing some £50,000,000 of government and state stocks in the United States alone. These have again resulted in a total loss, and a destruction of confidence. A recovery has again taken place, and capital is very abundant.

Looking back upon past events, and observing the results of different modes of investment, the capitalist perceives that railroad enterprises have alone been exempt from the disasters that have overtaken all other modes of employing capital; and those yield a good revenue, constantly increasing in amount. This means of investment has grown up into importance within the last fifteen years, and has been, wherever adopted, productive of the most surprising results, not only in relation to the mere profitableness of the investments, but in regard to the great stimulus it has given to the local trade, and the increase of travel. In England it has been found, that in nearly every case where a railroad adapted for the carrying of passengers has been brought into operation, the amount of travelling along the line has been quadrupled. Railways of a certain construction were used as early as the beginning of the 17th century, but confined to some private use, as that of collieries. The first public railway of England was chartered in 1801, and up to 1825, twenty-four companies had been chartered. From 1825 to 1838, 153 companies were chartered, most of which have gone into operation. The advantages of railway communication began to dawn upon the world in the year 1825. It is, however, a singular fact, that up to the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester railroad, in 1830, not one was undertaken with the view of obtaining a revenue from passengers. In the prospectus published by the projectors of that work, it was estimated that perhaps one half of the passengers then travelling between the two towns might, in consideration of lower fare, be induced to travel by the railroad. It was found, however, that not only did the whole travel between the two cities pass over the road, but that it was quadrupled in extent in a very short time. It was also computed, when the travel was found to increase so rapidly, that the great facility of personal communication would diminish the number of letters transmitted; experience showed the reverse to be the case. The postage on the route increased sixteen per cent in three years under the old system of high rates, showing that the business and social intercourse were eminently promoted by the facility of communication.

The original capital was £510,000, and was subsequently increased to £1,832,375, the cost of the construction. The cost and business of the work were both greatly underrated. Its eminent success, however, gave the spur not only to railroad building in Great Britain, but on the continent of Europe and in the United States. In England, the government has not interfered in any way with the construction of the roads, but has been liberal in granting charters to private companies. This state of affairs has, however, subjected the railroad interest to a severe tax, in the way of a corruption fund, to buy off opposition in Parliament. That company, among rivals for the same route, which could interest the greatest number of legislators in its favor, obtained the charter. The extent to which this was, and is carried, may be seen in the following account of the "parliamentary expenses" of eight roads:—

		Length miles.			Length miles.
London and Birmingham,	£72,868	112	Birmingham and Gloucester,	£12,000	45
Great Western,	88,710	117½	Great North of England,	20,526	76
London and Southampton,	39,040	76¾	Grand Junction,	22,757	82½
Midland Counties,	28,776	57	Bristol and Exeter,	18,592	75½

On 642 miles of road, $1,515,000 was expended in procuring charters,—equal to $250 per mile of construction. Notwithstanding these and other difficulties, the progress of railroads has been very rapid, and successful beyond the investments in any other description of public works.

The annual report of the officers of the railway department of the board of trade, for 1842, state the number of passengers conveyed on all the lines as follows :—

Number of 1st class passengers,		2,926,980
" 2d " "		7,611,966
" 3d " "		5,332,501
" Miscellaneous,		2,582,057
Total passengers coveyed in 1842,		18,453,504
Revenue from passengers,	£2,731,687	
" " freight,	1,088,835	
		£3,820,522

It is worthy of remark, as indicating the entire safety of this mode of travel, and the rare degree of perfection to which the science of locomotion has reached, that of this 18,453,000 persons conveyed, only *one* was killed while riding in the train and observing the proper degree of caution.

The extraordinary success which has thus attended this mode of investment, has caused, during the past year, 240 new projects to come before the public, even under the stringent regulations of the British government, requiring an outlay of £127,000,000, or near $635,000,000. The accumulation of property has caused the three per cent government consols to advance to par, and enabled the government to reduce the 3½ per cents. The strong governments of Europe have borrowed but little, and the credit of the weak ones has been destroyed. Hence the desire to build railroads. On the continent of Europe, similar enterprises have produced like results.

At the end of August, there were in Germany, in operation, 475 French leagues of railroads, with a capital of 136,000,000 florins, or $54,500,000. In France, Belgium, and Austria, gigantic works are in operation, serving to open to the traveller an easy access to every considerable point on the continent. The turn which affairs have taken during the past twenty years, is eminently calculated to create a demand for works of this nature. The condition of Germany, at the peace of 1815, was very unsatisfactory. The losses all the states had sustained during the long wars which ravaged them, and the consequent interruption to industry, had impoverished the country, and ruined the finances of the numerous states of which Germany is composed. The inconvenience of numerous customs regulations, impeded the commerce and trade of the people, while they were so expensive as to absorb a large portion of the revenue they were intended to collect. These evils induced an association, in 1836, of eleven of the smaller states, whose collective population was 894,778, for the purpose of having but one line of custom houses around their extreme frontier. At this time, and subsequent thereto, the government of Prussia

conceived the design of re-forming the ancient German empire, not under a military government, but in a commercial union so close that, herself at the head, the common interests of all the states would make their cause a common one in the event of another war, and prevent those dissensions which led, in former wars, to the disasters they suffered. The smaller states viewed the ascendency of Prussia, in this matter, with jealousy. The events of 1830, however, by exciting their fears of greater evils, induced them to come into the arrangement. The French revolution of 1830 awakened the republican spirit in "young Germany," and a chord vibrated through the universities, that caused much uneasiness to existing governments. The Belgian revolution succeeded, and when, on the separation of that state from Holland, the marriage of Leopold with the daughter of Louis Philippe was followed by the fall of Antwerp, the former designs of Napoleon seemed to have been fulfilled, and that city appeared the naval arsenal of France. The Polish revolution gave a new impulse to the fears excited by those events, and the consolidation of Germany in the great customs union followed.

By this skilful movement, Prussia seized the direction of affairs in Northern Europe, greatly to the alarm of Austria; and to counterbalance it, that power has entered into a preliminary treaty with the Italian and Sardinian States, with the view to consolidate them under a great southern customs union, which will absorb the whole of Europe, as that of Prussia is rapidly doing the whole of the North. Belgium has already formed a reciprocal treaty with Prussia, and Holland has commenced negotiations for one. After these internal barriers to trade are thrown down, the first want perceived, is that of a prompt, rapid, and certain means of locomotion. This is presented in the railway system, which is now being pushed with increasing vigor throughout Europe. Every state is traversed in all directions by these iron arms, which will soon embrace Europe in the strong bonds of mutual commercial interests, affording a guarantee of continued peace.

In the United States, the example set by the success of the Manchester and Liverpool railroad, gave a great impulse to similar undertakings. The rapid increase of population, and the development of the resources of the country, both a cause and a consequence of the improved means of communication, made our extension of those means necessary; and 143 railroads, measuring 5,000 miles, constructed at a cost of over $110,000,000, were speedily put in operation. These roads have nearly all of them been the result of private enterprise, called forth by the urgency of some local want, and without any great national design in their adoption or connection. In contemplating these extensive investments of private means during the last ten or fifteen years, in connection with the fact, that the capital so employed now yields very nearly an average of five per cent, and is constantly advancing in profit, we find that it contrasts eminently with the enormous sums sunk in banking operations.

During the same period in which this large sum has been absorbed in railroads, over $150,000,000 has been totally sunk in broken banks, leaving no vestige of its existence. It has been consumed in extravagance; eaten and drunk by those whose future earnings were to pay for present indulgence. Large sums of money have also been borrowed by states, and the amount sunk in canals, which, yielding no profit, are now to be superceded by the more speedy and convenient mode of locomotion

afforded by railways. Most of these states have become insolvent, and in the public mind generally, there has grown up a distrust of promises, either state or banking. The states which now pay their debts, taught by the past, will not increase their issues to any great extent. The federal government will have no occasion to borrow, and the delinquent states cannot create new debts until the old ones are settled. The burden of taxation necessary for such a settlement, must effectually prevent the popular consent to an extension of loans. The surplus capital of individuals will not, for a long time to come, be disposed to seek the stock of distant banks for employment. Another generation must pass away before the frightful losses sustained by northern and eastern capital in bank speculations at the south, and in the valley of the Mississippi, can be forgotten. Neither have the effects of the speculations of past years been obliterated from real estate, in a degree sufficient to make desirable mortgages easy to be obtained. In New England, railroads have made greater progress than in any other section of the Union. This has been the result, partly of the superior capital of that section of the country, and the promptness and economy with which that capital, in the hands of individuals, has been applied to the construction of railroads, and of the manufacturing industry of its dense population.

The following is a table of the length, cost, current receipts, and expenses of the Massachusetts roads :—

LENGTH, CAPITAL, ANNUAL REVENUE, AND EXPENSES, WITH THE DEBTS AND INTEREST OF THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS FOR 1843.

	Length miles.	Capital paid in.	Debt.	Interest.	Current expenses.	Receipts.
Western,	156	3,000,000	4,319,520	294,482	283,826	573,882
Berkshire,	21	250,000	(Included in the Housatonic.)			
Lowell,	26	1,800,000	.....	.....	109,366	277,315
Maine,	20	1,028,312	.....	17,421	91,756	178,744
Providence,	31	1,860,000	.....	.....	125,314	233,388
Worcester,	44	2,885,200	.....	.....	206,641	404,141
Cha'ston branch,	7	250,000	.....	.....	112,369	127,698
Eastern,	39	1,800,000	500,000	25,000	174,921	299,562
Fitchburgh,	...	921,000	(Ten miles open only.)			
Hartford & S'field,	25½	60,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nashua & Lowell,	9	380,000	.....	.....	39,991	84,097
N. Bedford & T'n,	20	400,000	.....	.....	22,280	20,671
Nashua & Wat'fd,	86	1,366,087	922,447	51,565	85,899	162,335
Taunton branch,	11	250,000	.....	.....	51,395	74,251
West Stockbridge,	25	37,000	(Used by Housatonic.)			
Worcester branch,	...	2,750	(In progress.)			
Total,	540½	$16,290,349	5,741,967	388,468	1,303,618	2,446,875

It will be observed that, in this table, the expenses are the current outgoes, independent of the interest. The result is, then, as follows :—

Receipts, &c.,	$2,446,075
Deduct interest,	388,468
Balance,	2,057,607
Expenses,	1,303,618
Nett profit, 4.62 per cent, on $16,290,349,	$753,989

It appears, then, that all the loans to these roads, which constitute more than 25 per cent of their cost, first receive five per cent from the

gross earnings, and that the nett earnings are sufficient to pay 4.62 per cent on the whole capital paid in, on all the roads.

The progress of the trade of these roads, is manifested in the following table, showing the income of those regularly in operation, for a succession of years, as follows:—

REVENUES OF MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Western,	112,347	182,308	493,121	573,882
Boston and Lowell,	231,575	267,541	278,310	277,315
" and Maine,	93,468	116,016	155,880	178,744
" and Providence,	202,601	230,821	236,467	233,388
" and Worcester,	267,547	310,807	362,283	404,141
Charleston Branch,	3,545	1,286	45,384	127,698
Eastern,	199,134	299,574	269,168	279,562
Nashua and Lowell,	82,638	132,496	131,188	84,078
New Bedford and Taunton,	26,437	52,513	55,775	50,671
Norwich and Worcester,	107,104	151,926	122,130	162,335
Taunton Branch,	75,477	76,925	77,170	74,251
Total,	$1,401,873	1,822,213	2,326,676	2,446,075

Of the Great Western railroad, fifty-four miles was open in 1840, and 160 miles in 1841; and the Norwich and Worcester railroad was open only nine months of 1840. The aggregates, however, show a regular and large increase of revenues, amounting to 80 per cent in four years, or 20 per cent per annum. If we take the four Massachusetts roads that have been in operation for a longer period, we have results as follows:—

	Boston and Lowell.	*Boston and Providence.*	*Boston and Worcester.*	*Nashua and Lowell.*	*Total on four roads.*
1838,	191,778	265,115	212,325	6,114	675,332
1839,	241,219	313,707	231,807	55,053	841,786
1840,	231,575	202,601	267,547	82,638	784,361
1841,	267,541	230,821	310,807	132,496	941,665
1842,	278,310	236,467	362,283	131,188	1,010,248
1843,	277,315	233,388	404,141	84,078	998,922

The increase of revenue is very large, notwithstanding that the general trade of the country, in the years 1840–41–42, was in abeyance. It is, however, undoubtedly true, that in a country, the general wealth and population of which increases with such a rapidity as that, those channels of communication, which are the vehicles of its trade, and the means of its wealth, most of all them advance in value in a ratio proportioned to that of the section of their location. The revenues for 1844, of which the returns are not yet complete, thus far indicate a great general increase over former years; so much so, that the Norwich and Worcester has been enabled to declare its first dividend, payable January, 1845.

Under these circumstances, the disposition to build railroads has received a new impetus in the New England states, and the legislature of New Hampshire has passed a bill laying the foundation of a magnificent system of railroads in that state, while, in other sections, the unfinished links of the lines projected in former years, are being pushed to completion. Without any combined plan, the numerous projects of former years seemed to compose eight great lines, by means of which, and their extensions, all the states of the Union will be brought into close communication; the

line now broken, in some parts from Portsmouth, N. H., to Pensacola, Florida, extending to New Orleans, forming the main artery.

The effects of these improvements, in developing the resources of a country, peopled by a race so hardy and enterprising as are the citizens of the United States, can hardly be over estimated. With a return of commercial and financial prosperity, and to which the works here alluded to, must eminently contribute, the want of further lines will be felt, while the enhanced value of those now in operation, will encourage the outlay of capital in a manner productive of such great results. The profitableness of the works cannot be doubted, when we consider the present low cost of their construction, and the giant strides to wealth made by a people indefatigable in their efforts at individual and national advancement. The eyes of settlers, the merchants and statesmen, are all intently fixed upon the great country of the Oregon, through which the vast commerce of Asia is to be commanded by the United States. A project has already been put before Congress, to connect, by steam, across the wilderness, the great lakes with the mouth of the Oregon.

It is of the nature of these undertakings, to multiply commercial transactions through the facilities they offer, and even to create a business where none has previously existed; so that a line which, for the first few years of its operation, scarcely pays its expenses, must, in a few years, prove lucrative. The Camden and Amboy railroad is an eminent example of these truths. That work cost $1,238,000, completed in 1830; in three years the travel increased 65 per cent, and freight 123 per cent. In the three years, from 1833 to 1837, its nett earnings exceeded the whole cost of the line. In this view, railroads claim the attention of merchants above any other mode of investment, inasmuch as that they create the commerce it is their business to transact; and, therefore, while yielding a better and safer dividend, are superior to banks. Railroads create business; they offer an avenue over which the industry of the country may send its produce to market, and exchange it for merchandise. It brings goods and customers to the doors of the merchant, while banks only tend to facilitate that which exists. They are peculiarly adapted to this country, where an active population is continually pushing on to the rich prairies of the west, leaving behind them the markets for purchase and sale, which they cannot do without. What benefits the merchant and dealer, cannot but promote the welfare of the farmer, and improve the condition of the manufacturer—all their interests prosper only in proportion to the activity of intercourse with each other. Railroads offer an unsurpassed mode of communication, which, in effect, by the promptness and speed of their operations, doubles the amount of capital employed in all these pursuits.

All civilized countries seem now to be alive to the importance of railroads, and even the Czar risks their influence on the spread of democracy, for the immense commercial advantages they hold out. Late advices tell us of a decree to borrow 12,000,000 roubles, for the construction of a road from St. Petersburg to Moscow.

Art. V.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF BRAZIL.

Brazil is supposed to have been discovered A. D. 1500, by Pincen, a Spanish navigator, one of the companions of Columbus; but it was taken possession of in the same year, by Pedro Alvarez de Cabral, an admiral of Emanual, king of Portugal, by which country it was soon after colonized. In 1808, in consequence of the invasion of Portugal by the French, the regal family removed to Brazil, and remained there till 1821. In 1822, Don Pedro, the crown Prince of Portugal, who had been left by his father Regent of Brazil, was proclaimed Emperor by the inhabitants, and, in 1823, a constitution was adopted. In 1831, an insurrection broke out, which led to the abdication of Pedro I. in favor of his infant son.

Brazil stretches along about two-thirds of the east coast of the South American continent, while its superficial area occupies nearly half its whole extent. It is second only to the great empires of China and Russia. It lies between 4 deg. 17 min. N. and 33 deg. S. lat.; its most easterly point is Cape St. Augustin, in 34 deg. 58 min. W. long., but the longitude of its west frontier cannot be determined with accuracy, since its boundary-line on that side is in countries hitherto unexplored by Europeans; it probably verges upon 75 deg. The length, from N. to S., is between 2,600 and 2,700 miles, and its breadth, from E. to W., between 2,300 and 2,400 miles. Its extent of coast, along the Atlantic ocean, exceeds 4,000 miles; its area has been estimated at from 2,300,000 to 2,700,000 square miles. It is bounded east and south by the Atlantic ocean; north, by French, Dutch, and British Guiana, and the republic of Columbia, from which it is separated by a chain of mountains, under the various names of Serra de Tuhuny, Serra Pecaraimo, &c., and the Rio Oyapoco; east by the Atlantic ocean; and west by the states constituting the federal republic of La Plata, with Bolivia, Peru, and Eucador, or Quito. The country which was formerly included under the name of Brazil, is proved by the ancient maps to have extended only from the seacoast to Rio San Pedro. The Portuguese, however, have never ceased adding fresh acquisitions to the country which they already possessed, and their possession has from time to time been confirmed to them by treaties with Spain.*

The physical character of Brazil is, as yet, but imperfectly known; but, so far as ascertained, it appears to be a country of vast natural capabilities. A ridge of mountains runs parallel with, and at no great distance from the coast, from 10 to 32 deg. S. latitude. In the W., the land again rises from the height of from 3,000 to 6,000 feet, spreading out into those sandy plains called Campos Parexis, which occupy the centre of South America. Nearly one-half of the surface is composed of uplands. The lowlands extend principally along the sides of the river Amazon, with smaller portions on the shores, and on the S. W. border. In a country equal in extent to nearly four-fifths of Europe, the productions must be very much diversified; but the greater part of it is covered by vast forests, considerable portions of which have been only partially explored. The mineral productions, so far as known, are chiefly gold, diamonds, iron, and salt. The province of Minas Geraes is the richest in gold

* Harper's edition of McCulloch's Geographical Dictionary.

and diamonds; and what is called the "Diamond District" extends about 50 miles from N. to S., and 25 miles from E. to W. around the sources of the Rio Francisco, and the Rio Parana, and adjoining Tejuco, about 400 miles N. from Rio de Janeiro, where nearly 2,000 persons are employed by government in collecting the stones. Gold abounds chiefly in this province, in the affluents of the Rio Francisco, but it is found likewise in all the head waters of the great rivers which flow northward into the Amazon. About the middle of the last century, the annual produce was about 35,000 marcs; but owing to the exhaustion of the auriferous sand from which it was washed, the amount decreased, and betwixt 1800 and 1820, averaged only about 9,000 marcs annually. Of late, however, British capital has been applied with some success to work the veins in the mountains, particularly at Conge Soco, near Sabara, about 280 miles N. from Rio, and the produce is again, doubtless, more considerable. The forests abound with great varieties of wood, well adapted for dyeing, for cabinet-work, and for ship building. A considerable portion, however, of the country south of 20 deg. south latitude, especially in the province of Rio Grande, consists of extensive pastures, on which innumerable herds of cattle roam, mostly in a wild state.

The propensity of the Brazilians to seek for gold and diamonds has produced a general disrelish for sober industry. The comparatively small portion only of this fine country which is cultivated, consists chiefly of tracts extending from 30 to 40 miles around the seaports. The attention of the more intelligent Brazilians has of late been directed to the improvement of agriculture. The northern provinces produce cotton, sugar, rice, tobacco, tapioca, isinglass, caoutchouc, indigo, and a variety of drugs and dye-woods; the middle provinces, coffee, sugar, tobacco, rosewood, rice, &c.; while in the southern province of Rio Grande, the hides and horns of the wild cattle form the chief source of wealth. A small quantity of wheat was formerly raised in Rio Grande; in point of soil and climate, it is so well adapted for the productions of the temperate zone, that it might not only supply all the rest of the empire with provisions, but have a considerable surplus for exportation to foreign countries. The Mandioca plant is common nearly all over the empire; the root, ground into meal, forming a general article of food, while the plant itself produces tapioca, which is largely exported. Indian corn, millet, and beans are also generally cultivated. Cotton is raised chiefly from lat. 15 deg. S. to the equator; the best is that of Pernambuco; next, that of Maranham; that of Bahia and Para is inferior. Sugar is cultivated chiefly in the province of Bahia, but to a great extent, likewise, in the provinces of Rio de Janeiro and Pernambuco. Coffee forms the chief object of culture in the province of Rio de Janeiro, where the quantity raised is very great, and is yearly increasing. It is likewise raised, but to a comparatively trifling extent, in the northern provinces; also in some of the inland ones, particularly Minas Geraes. The cultivation of tobacco, formerly so extensive, is now on the decline; the best is grown near Bahia. Rice is raised principally in the island of Santa Catharina, and in the provinces of Maranham and Para.

The internal commerce of Brazil chiefly consists in conveying the produce of the country to the seaports, and receiving European, and the manufactures of the United States, in exchange. Mules form the common means of transport, as the roads seldom admit of the use of carriages,

and as yet there is no inland navigation. A number of large rivers intersect the country in various directions; but very little is known regarding their capabilities. A company, under English direction, has, however, been recently formed at Rio de Janeiro, for the survey and navigation of the Rio-doce.

The foreign commerce of Brazil exceeds that of any other country of America, except the United States, and is yearly increasing. The exports chiefly consist of coffee, sugar, cotton, and hides; besides tallow, horns, brazilwood, rosewood, fustic, tobacco, rice, indigo, ipecacuanha, sarsaparilla, castor-oil, castor-beans, tapioca, caoutchouc, nuts, gold and diamonds. The trade in brazilwood is a government monopoly, but the commodity is extensively smuggled. The chief markets for Brazil produce are, the United States, and in Europe, London, Liverpool, Hamburg, Antwerp, Trieste, Havre, Lisbon, and Oporto. In 1838, the principal articles carried to Britain, consisted of 10,373,713 lbs. coffee; 201,780 lbs. cocoa; 24,464,509 lbs. cotton; 86,515 cwts. sugar; 28,463 cwts. hides; 132 tons fustic; and 10,469 lbs. tobacco. A considerable portion of the goods shipped to the other European markets is on English account, more particularly coffee and sugar, as these two articles cannot (owing to prohibitory duties) be introduced into the United Kingdom, except for re-exportation; such cargoes, however, are frequently sold in London by sample; the vessels waiting their ultimate destination in the Channel.

The imports consist of manufactured commodities of all kinds, tea, wine, oil, and provisions. The declared value of British manufactures and produce imported in 1827, according to the accounts of the British board of trade, was £2,312,109; in 1836, £3,030,532; in 1838, £2,606,604; the last was chiefly composed of apparel, &c., £11,576; arms and ammunition, £37,214; ale and beer, £7,009; books, £1,295; brass and copper manufactures, £25,595; butter and cheese, £106,221; coals, £4,193; cordage, £3,963; cotton manufactures, £1,657,702; earthernware, £35,275; glass, £19,393; hardwares and cutlery, £51,570; hats, £9,862; iron and steel, £50,527; lead and shot, £20,043; leather, wrought and unwrought, £8,164; saddlery, £2,243; linen manufactures, £167,545; machinery, £13,857; painters' colors, £8,238; plate, £1,717; silks, £12,869; soap and candles, £58,769; stationery, £10,960; tinwares, £2,000; woollen manufactures, £228,932; other articles, £58,857. A variety of articles of foreign and colonial produce are also imported from the United Kingdom; in 1838, the principal were 2,528 lbs. cassia; 29,107 cwts. flour; 55,707 pieces India cottons; 11,164 pieces India silks; 4,612 lbs. pepper and pimento; 536 lbs. quicksilver; 1,637 lbs. rhubarb; 4,050 galls. brandy; 3,906 galls. geneva; 3,824 lbs. tea; 165,334 lbs. tobacco; and 5,683 galls. wine, chiefly Spanish and Portuguese; besides which a considerable portion of the imports from other countries are on English account. From France are imported wines, cottons, woollens, silks, saddlery, glassware, flour, books, stationery, jewellery, perfumery, and fancy articles: from Portugal, wine, oil, snuff, and a small quantity of linens: from the United States, about two-thirds of the flour, and nearly all of the tea consumed in the country; also, ordinary cottons, wax and sperm candles, India goods, and a variety of rough articles of furniture, implements of husbandry, &c.: from the Hanse Towns, furniture, coffee bagging, linens, paper, glass, provisions, &c.: from Belgium, cutlery, arms, copper and brass manufactures, &c.;

from Spain, wine, oil, fruit, &c.: from Italy, macaroni, vermicelli, marble, &c.: from Holland, demijohns, gin, cheese, &c.: from Sicily, wine: from Sweden, iron, tar, pitch, pine, boards, &c.: from Africa, negroes continue to be brought in great numbers, notwithstanding the utmost vigilance of the British cruisers; these are paid for chiefly in coarse muskets and gunpowder, imported expressly for this infamous traffic, from England and Belgium; and in the common cotton fabrics, well known in the British manufacturing districts, under the name of "coast goods." The shipping craft employed in the slave-trade, is imported from the United States.

The total amount of exports is estimated at about $30,000,000, and the imports at nearly the same. Upwards of two-thirds of the whole foreign trade is in the hands of the British. The ports at which it is chiefly conducted, stated in their order from north to south, are Para, Maranham, Paraiba, Pernambuco, Maceio, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, Santos, and Rio Grande: the principal of these are the following:—

Maranham, in 2 deg. 31 min. S. and 44 deg. 19 min. W., lies on the island of that name, forming the S. E. side of the bay of Marcos; pop. 30,000. The harbor is good and safe, but the entrance is difficult. Exports, chiefly cotton, sent, for the most part, to Liverpool, and rice and hides shipped to Portugal. The value of the imports, in 1835, was £489,014; whereof, in 23 British vessels, £259,924; 35 Brazilian, £83,975; 18 Portuguese, £50,924; 19 Spanish, £23,193; 8 French, £27,547; 23 American, £32,194; and 3 Belgian, £11,257. In 1838, the value of the exports was £303,552; and of the imports, £414,002.

Pernambuco, in 8 deg. 3 min. S. and 34 deg. 52 min. W., the capital of the province of that name, and one of the most flourishing ports of Brazil, comprises three distinct towns, which are built on sandbanks surrounded by the sea, and connected by bridges; population, including the adjoining city of Olinda, nearly 100,000. Exports, cotton, sugar, and hides; the estimated value, in 1835, being £951,808. The number of vessels that entered, in the same year, was 247; of which 59 were British; the value of the British cargoes, being in merchandise, £464,179; and in specie, by packets, £35,821; total, £500,000.

Bahia is situated in 13 deg. 1 min. S. and 38 deg. 32 min. W., in the capacious bay of All Saints, with an excellent harbor; pop. 120,000. The anchorage is abreast of the city, a mile and a half distant, in 8 to 12 fathoms. Bahia was formerly the capital of Brazil, and though now subordinate to Rio, is still a place of great consideration. It is strongly fortified, and possesses both public and private ship-building yards. Exports, sugar, cotton, coffee, hides, tobacco, fancy woods, and drugs. The imports, in 1835, amounted to £1,412,521, of which £942,956 were from Britain.

Rio de Janeiro, (formerly St. Sebastian,) in 22 deg. 55 min. S., and 43 deg. 9 min. W., is beautifully situated on the western side of a small bay, forming one of the most magnificent natural harbors in the world; pop. about 200,000, two-thirds being blacks and mixed castes. The city lies about four miles from the entrance to the bay. To the right, on entering, is the fort of Santa Cruz, within hail of which all vessels going into the harbor are required to pass, in order to answer any questions that may be put to them. Rio is the seat of more than one-half the foreign commerce of Brazil; and it has likewise a very extensive inland

trade, particularly with the provinces of Minas Geraes, Goyaz, and Matta Grosso. It is the key to the mining districts,—furnishing all their supplies, and receiving all their produce for shipment or other disposal. Exports, coffee, more than 1,000,000 bags, (each of 4 arrobas, or 160 lbs.;) sugar, about 15,000 cases, (each from 1,200 to 2,000 lbs.;) hides, No. 350,000; cotton, tallow, drugs, dyes, gold, and diamonds; the imports, of manufactured commodities of all kinds, flour, dried fish, wine, and brandy. The value of foreign goods imported into Rio, in 1836, according to a statement given in the *Jornal do Commercio*, was £3,839,379; of which, from Britain, £2,005,543; France, £581,571; Portugal and her possessions, £281,885; United States, £225,353; Hanseatic States, £239,384; Uruguay, £96,857; Belgium, £73,789; Spain, £61,270; Sardinia, £56,223; Argentine Republic, £44,284; Holland and her colonies, £37,046; Sicily, £33,219; Sweden, £31,589; Chili, £26,135; Austria, £14,067; Sundries, £31,164. These imports are exclusive of negroes, of whom vast numbers continue to be brought from Africa to this port, or the neighboring coast.

The imports at, and exports from, Rio Janeiro, in the years 1841–42, and 1842–43, were as follows:—

IMPORTS AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

From	1842–43. Mil reis.	1839–40. Mil reis.		1842–43. Mil reis.	1839–40. Mil reis.
Great Britain,...	13,697:638$	15,092:553$	Hanse Towns,.	1,430:875$	1,596:316$
United States,...	4,028:471$	1,799:686$	Brazilian ports,..	1,062:205$	680:115$
France,.....	3,985:972$	4,314:362$	Uncertain,.....	2,045:460$	982:437$
Portugal,.....	1,912:077$	2,652:598$	Spain,.....	618:249$	765:413$
Uruguay,.....	1,552:640$	1,577:217$			
Arg. Republic,.	932:092$		Total,.....	31,265:679$	29,450:697$

EXPORTS FROM RIO JANEIRO.

	1842–43. Mil reis.	1841–42. Mil reis.		1842–43. Mil reis.	1841–42. Mil reis.
Great Britain,...	3,920:629$	3,910:194$	Austrian ports,.	2,050:075$	1,770:146$
United States,...	6,005:131$	6,044:960$	Denmark,.....	544:290$	567:621$
France,.....	1,118:036$	1,430:040$	Sweden,.....	469:097$	797:502$
Portugal,.....	1,205:100$	1,194:174$	Genoa,.....	389:963$	444:909$
Uruguay,.....	655:242$	1,011:035$	Holland,.....	34:923$	188:055$
Arg. Republic,..	704:206$	453:893$	Uncertain,.....	834:190$	1,707:530$
Belgium,.....	928:471$	789:527$			
Hanse Towns,..	3,360:956$	3,404:660$	Total,.....	22,220:309$	23,614:246$

COFFEE EXPORTED FROM RIO DE JANEIRO—BAGS OF 160 LBS.

Years.	Bags.	Years.	Bags.	Years.	Bags.	Years.	Bags.
1824,	224,000	1829,	375,107	1834,	539,117	1839,	871,785
1825,	182,510	1830,	391,735	1835,	627,165	1840,	1,063,801
1826,	260,000	1831,	448,249	1836,	704,385	1841,	1,013,915
1827,	350,900	1832,	478,950	1837,	629,734	1842,	1,179,731
1828,	369,147	1833,	563,195	1838,	781,651	1843,	1,189,523
	1,386,557		2,257,286		3,282,052		5,318,755

SUGAR—CASES.

Years.	Cases.	Years.	Cases.	Years.	Cases.
1829,.....	18,864	1834,.....	14,786	1839,.....	17,627
1830,.....	22,488	1835,.....	19,692	1840,.....	13,499
1831,... ...	22,004	1836,.....	24,669	1841,.....	10,465
1832,.....	16,645	1837,.....	17,598	1842,.....	15,460
1833,.....	14,154	1838,.....	19,996	1843,.....	9,433
	94,159		96,741		66,484

The cotton goods imported into Rio de Janeiro, from Great Britain, the United States, France, and the Hanse Towns, from 1840 to 1843, inclusive, were as follows :—

COTTON GOODS IMPORTED INTO RIO DE JANEIRO.

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Great Britain,.....packages	20,828	24,968	14,059	14,455
United States,.....	6,169	8,961	5,337	7,358
France,.....	1,618	1,526	1,317	1,109
Hanse Towns,.....	853	941	678	577

HIDES—NUMBER.

Years.	No.	Years.	No.	Years.	No.
1829,.....	351,897	1834,.....	196,675	1839,.....	141,492
1830,.....	266,719	1835,.....	144,404	1840,.....	194,506
1831,.....	342,385	1836,.....	155,009	1841,.....	152,548
1832,.....	263,657	1837,.....	141,782	1842,.....	198,082
1833,.....	187,530	1838,.....	192,710	1843,.....	345,070
	1,412,188		830,580		1,031,698

MEASURES, WEIGHTS, MONEY, FINANCES, &c.

THE MEASURES AND WEIGHTS—are nominally those of Portugal; but there are some variations. In trade, the following proportions are usually observed: 5 varas = 6 Imp. yds.; 4 covados = 3 Imp. yds.; 99 Brazilian lbs. = 100 lbs. avoirdupois. At Rio Janeiro, 100 medidas = 73 1-3 wine, or 61 1-10 Imp. galls.; and 12 alqueires = 13 1-4 Winchester bushels. At Bahia, 1 canada = 1 2-3 Imp. galls.; and 7 alqueirs = 6 Winchester bushels. At Maranham, the alqueire = 1 1-4 Winchester bushels.

MONEY.—The integer of account is the rea, and 1000 reas make 1 milrea (1 $000,) the value of which fluctuates, being reckoned in depreciated government paper, or in a debased and irregular copper money. The course of exchange with London was recently quoted at Rio Janeiro, where the paper money chiefly circulates, at only 31d. per milrea. At the northern ports of Pernambuco, Maranham, and Para, the currency is principally copper.

A conto is 1000 $000.

The paper money is in the form of imperial bank or rather treasury notes for one milrea and upwards, which are inconvertible; and the copper mostly in pieces of 40, 20, and 10 reas. The amount in circulation was lately stated to be about 33,500 contos of paper, and 6500 contos of copper money; in all 40,000,000 $000. Various projects have been brought forward for the reform of the Brazilian currency, but none has yet received the sanction of the government.

No silver or gold coins are at present in circulation. Before the introduction of paper money, the principal silver coin was the 960 rea piece, a Spanish dollar restamped, worth 4s. 2d.: the principal gold coin was the piece for 4 $000, worth 20s. 1 1-4d.

Bills are usually drawn on London at 60 days, sight.

FINANCE AND DEBT.—The following are the revenues from customs, consulados, and other sources of the empire of Brazil, showing the amount received at Rio de Janeiro, and in the other parts of the empire, in each year, from 1836 to 1843, inclusive; and the funded debt of Brazil :—

Years.	Rio Janeiro. *mil reis.*	Other places. *mil reis.*	Total. *mil reis.*
1836–37,.....	6,421:387$	5,234:176$	11,655:563$
1837–38,.....	6,433:525$	4,708:014$	11,141:539$
1838–39,.....	8,330:928$	6,336:475$	14,667:403$
1839–40,.....	9,458:572$	6,466:205$	15,924:777$
1840–41,.....	10,066:828$	6.520:846$	16,587:674$
1841–42,.....	10,419:814$	6,376:375$	16,796:189$
1842–43,.....	9,540:301$	5,328:234$	15,868:535$

FUNDED DEBT OF BRAZIL, JUNE, 1843.*

	£	Mil reis.
Foreign,	6,187,050	35,141,666$
Internal,	7,775,427	43,196,820$
Total,	13,962,477	78,338,486$

The new Brazilian tariff went into operation on the 11th of November, 1844; which, having been published in a corrected form, we submit the following memorandum of the duties upon the usual articles of American import, and have added the new regulations regarding anchorage or tonnage money, and extra ship-stores; also, the circular from the treasury relative to the papers and certificates required for clearing vessels, which will be interesting to those engaged in the Brazil trade :—

MEMORANDUM OF DUTIES UPON THE USUAL ARTICLES OF AMERICAN IMPORT INTO RIO DE JANEIRO, PER TARIFF OF 11TH NOVEMBER, 1844.

Articles.	Duty in currency, reis.	Duty $ and cents; ex. 25d.	Duty by old tariff, reis.	Increase or dec. in duty.	Inc. or decrease in p. cent.
Beeswax, lb.	210	10 50	147	063	48
Beef, bbl.	4,500	2 25	4,000	500	12½
Bran, bush.	250	05	200	050	25
Brandy, Spanish, gall.	710	35½	470	240	51
Butter, lb.	120	06	084	036	43
Candles, sperm,	180	09	136½	043½	32
" comp.,	200	10	105	095	90
" tallow,	075	03¾	052½	22½	42
Cassia,	145	07¼	067	78	113
Cheese,	120	06	074	046	48
Codfish, qtl.	2,500	1 25	2,100	400	19
Cigars, M.	15,000	7 50	4,100	10,900	265
Coals, ton	780	39	977	097	10
Cordage, Russia, qtl.	6,000	2 24–100	3,780	2,220	60
" Manilla,	7,500	2 84–100	3,780	3,720	99
" Coir,	4,500	1 70–100	2,940	560	53
Deals, doz.	4,354	2 17	8,360	994	20
Domestics†—Suffolk and Boot, brown, yd.	057	2 85–100	37	020	54
" bleached,	65	3 25–100	45	020	44
" blue,	74	3 70–100	54	020	37
Denims, York,	70	3 50–100	54	016	30
Osnaburgs, 29 inch,	57	2 85–100	37	020	54
Shirtings, Appleton and India head,	40	2 00	27	013	51
Stripes, York,	70	3 50–100	54	016	30
Flour, bbl.	3,000	1 50	2,922	078	3
Fire-crackers, 100 bund.	4,800	2 40	2,100	2,700	130
Gunpowder, lb.	180	09	168	012	7
Hams,	060	03	042	018	43
Hay,	180	28–100	090	090	100
Ice, ton	1,800	90	1,280	520	40
Iron, qtl.	1,750	15 33⅓	1,470	280	20
Lard, lb.	047	2 25–100	033	014	43
Lead, pig, qtl.	3,000	1 14–100	2,100	900	43
Lumber, M.	11,500	5 76	10,520	1,000	10
Oars, foot	085	1 75–100	025	010	40

* For the tabular statements of the commerce of Rio Janeiro, and the revenues and debt of the Brazilian empire, we are indebted to the courtesy of the Brazilian Consul-General to the United States, L. H. FERREIRA D'AGUIAR, residing in New York; an intelligent and faithful representative of the interests of his country.—[*Ed. Mer. Mag.*

† The duty being on the square yard, it varies according to width.

MEMORANDUM OF DUTIES, etc.—Continued.

Oil, linseed,.....gall.	055	20	042	013	20
" olive,.....	512	25 60–100	426	086	20
" sperm,.....	425	21 25–100	400	025	6
" whale,.....	256	12 80–100	187	069	37
Pepper,.....lb.	050	2 50–100	031½	018½	60
Pitch, American,.....	1,050	52 50–100	2,100	1,050	50
" Swedish,.....	3,000	1 50	2,100	900	43
Pork,.....bbl.	6,000	3 00	5,040	960	19
Paper, almaco,.....ream	510	25½	578	068	12
Ravens,.....ps.	3,000	1 50	2,100	900	43
Rosin,.....bbl.	1,680	88	1,176	504	50
Raisins,.....lb.	038	47½	027	011	40
Sail-cloth,.....ps.	6,000	3 00	4,200	1,800	43
Salt,.....bush.	160	07	240	080	33½
Saltpetre, crude and refined,.....lb.	1,500	2 24–100	1,260	240	19
Soap,.....	040	02	025	015	60
Sp. Turpentine,.....	085	30	038	047	125
Tea, of all kinds,.....	600	30	693	093	13
Tobacco, do.,.....	6,000	9 38–100	2,100	3,900	181
Tar, American,.....	875	43½	735	140	20
" Swedish,.....	2,000	1 00	1,680	320	20
Water-crackers,.....lb.	1,000	1 56–100	660	340	53
Wheat,.....bush.	400	17	420	038	5
Med'n red wines and common white do.,.....	36,060	18 00	33,364	2,636	8
Do. do. do.	39,642	19 92	36,924	2,918	8

ANCHORAGE DUTY.—The following is the decree of the Brazilian government, June 20th, 1844, for reducing the anchorage duty at the expiration of the treaty with Great Britain.

Art. 1. From the 11th of Nov. 1844, the anchorage duty on foreign or Brazilian vessels to foreign ports is reduced to 900 rs., and the anchorage upon Brazilian vessels sailing coastwise at 90 rs. per ton, without regard to the number of days which said vessels may remain in port.

Art. 2d. Vessels which enter in ballast and depart with cargo, and vice versa, shall pay half anchorage duty, and those which enter and depart in ballast one-third.

Art. 3d. Vessels which enter in "tranquia" either touching at any port of the Empire, for orders to refresh, whether loaded or in ballast, shall pay one-third.

4th. Vessels which put back from bad weather or any other cause, shall pay nothing, provided they neither receive nor discharge any goods for trade, or if they only discharge sufficient to pay their repairs, shall pay nothing.

5th. Vessels which having once paid in any Brazilian port the duties as per 1st, 2d and 3d articles, enter from any motive into another Brazilian port during the same voyage shall pay nothing except they receive cargo, in which case they shall make good the duties which otherwise they would have been liable to pay.

6th. Coasting vessels are exempted from paying more than half anchorage duty, provided that half at least of their crews are composed of Brazilian citizens, and from paying any duty should they be employed in the whale fishery, whether along the coast of Brazil or on the high seas.

7th. This regulation is only applicable to those nations which grant the same favors to Brazilian navigation. The government shall ascertain what those nations are which grant nothing or grant less to Brazilian vessels, in order to treat them in the same manner.

SURPLUS STORES OF VESSELS.—Decree No. 384, of October 9th, 1844, regulating the surplus stores of vessels from all ports, as follows:—

Art. 1st. After calculating the surplus stores granted free to each vessel, as mentioned in the Decree of the 30th March, 1839, add 30 per cent more for the consumption of her crew in port after discharging, as also for the return voyage,

upon which stores no duties will be exacted, as specified in the 91st Article and 10th paragraph of the regulation of the 22d of June, 1836.

2d. If after the above excess, an excess of stores be verified, the consumption duty on said excess will be recovered, but in seperating the articles subject to duties from those which are exempted, the captain shall be at liberty to take of such article or articles, a greater portion than what was hitherto allowed, and if taking none or even less of either of the articles mentioned in the list, the portion of each article allowed for each day must be substituted by the same quantity of any other article allowed for the same period.

3d. If the captain should consider that the surplus stores which are granted him free of duties for his return voyage, or that any articles of the same stores are more than sufficient to carry him to the port of his destination, he can ask for a deposit of them, and such deposit will be granted him in the national stores till the day before his departure, conducting them to and from said deposit at his own cost, in which case he shall only pay duties on the excess.

We close this article with an extract from the "Expediente," of September 20th, 1844, issued from the Department of Finance at Rio de Janeiro.

"Circular to the Provincial Treasurire, ordering that by the Boards of 'Consulado,' at each respective province, be observed the usages and practice of the Consulado of this city, as regardes the documents which masters of vessels should produce in order to be able to effect the clearance of their respective vessels."

Note of the documents above referred to:

"Ship's register"—"Cerificate of Brazilian measurement"—"Custom House clearance"—"Two Notes for calculating the anchorage."

From the Consulate of their respective nations, or from that of any friendly nation: "List of crew"—"Certf. of ownership of vessel"—"Certf. of tonnage (as per register,,)—Certf. of No. of crew on entry"—"Certf. of being (or not) armed."

N. B.—The above documents will be returned, with the exception of the Certf. of Measurement, Custom House clearance, and one of the Notes for calculating anchorage.

7th. The vessels of those nations, which levy upon Brazilan vessels, anchorage or port dues greater than those which are levied on their own vessels, shall be subject to the ports of Brazil, to 1-8d more anchorage duties than the above, and the government can even elevate still higher this duty, when the above addition of duties referred to, should not be deemed sufficient to counterbalance the difference levied by such nations upon Brazilian vessels.

Art. VI.—RESOURCES OF THE LACKAWANA VALLEY.*

The Lackawana Valley, situated in the county of Luzerne, is one of the most interesting portions of the state of Pennsylvania; bounded by mountainous ridges upon each side, and extending in a direct course for the distance of about forty-two miles, it embraces the most northerly basin of anthracite coal in this quarter of the country. Presenting a form like a boat, whose sides are mountains, the stern being at Nanticoke falls, where it terminates, at the south western end, and the bow at its north western end, it contains two hundred square miles of territory, which, at certain points, is copiously watered. The river Lackawana, entering the valley on the north east, unites at the centre with the Susquehanna,

* We are indebted to the enterprising proprietor of the Mount Vernon mills, Mr. Charles Watres, of Philadelphia, for much valuable information regarding the resources of this valley.—[*Ed. Mer. Mag.*

which flows into it at that point from a gorge in the western mountains. Below this junction is spread.out the valley of the Wyoming, which has long been distinguished for its picturesque beauty, and its luxuriant landscapes, made almost classic by its historic circumstances, as well as the poetry that has recorded them.

About one-third of the entire surface contains coal fields; the coal being found in seams, varying in thickness from four to eighteen feet, and maintaining a quality between the white ash and the red ash coal of the Schuylkill coal regions. The veins of coal cross the valley and incline to the south, lapping over each other from the south east to the north west; the spaces between the layers being filled with earth, rocks, or veins of iron ore. The mining coal in the valley, for market, was first commenced in 1829, by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, who, during that year, sent seven thousand tons. That quantity has been gradually increased to about two millions of tons, which have been transported from this basin. That enterprising company have prosecuted, successfully, mining operations in this coal field; so that, in 1843, there were sent to market by them 227,000 tons; the total amount which they had exported during a period of fifteen years, being 1,667,920 tons. It has been estimated, by Professor Rodgers, the state geologist, that the quantity of coal produced in this basin is sufficient to supply twenty millions of inhabitants for forty generations. Besides its resources in coal, the valley possesses, in its table lands and bottoms, a soil that is eminently adapted to agricultural enterprise; and which are now adorned with well cultivated, and even beautiful farms; producing abundanty all the crops which are required by its increasing population. The bottoms present a light and warm soil, which is easy of tillage; and the grains and the grapes may be made to flourish luxuriantly upon the heavier soil of its table lands.

Besides its resources in coal, the valley abounds in great quantities of iron ore of a superior quality; and it is manufactured into iron with anthracite coal in Harrison, at a point termed the Lackawana iron works. At this establishment is a furnace producing fifty tons of iron each week, as well as a rolling mill and a nail factory, which are working it up into numerous forms, from the smallest nails to the largest bars. Even so short a time as four years since, but two families resided at this place; but the population has now increased to about one thousand persons, two hundred and fifty men being employed in the irons works alone. During one day the coal and ore are taken from their native hills, and on the next the nails wrought from them are packed into kegs and sent away. Were a railroad constructed across to New Jersey, from this point, by the Roaring Creek, loads of nails and iron could reach New York during the third day after they were taken from the mines in the crude state. It is understood the company are now reaping large profits upon their investment, and it is probable that numerous other iron works, of a similar character, may spring up in the vicinity.

The Lackawana river presents, for the first ten miles, an immense amount of water power—its banks furnishing sites for manufacturing establishments of all sorts, possessing every advantage, and beautiful in their position. Ten of these sites are now occupied, upon the first ten miles of the river, and there are many that are still unimproved.

Among the most eligible sites for manufacturing establishments upon

the Lackawana river, is the Mount Vernon mills estate. The water power at the Mount Vernon mills is amply sufficient to propel six cotton factories, or other machinery requiring the same power; and while there is but one site occupied, there are others remaining unimproved. This point possesses extraordinary advantages for the establishment of a prosperous village. Iron ore abounds in considerable quantity, and of the best quality, at this place. Abundance of coal is yielded upon the river bank—there being four veins immediately upon the premises. These, together with the water power, which is extensive and valuable, present a group of advantages which eminently mark it as a place where a heavy manufacturing investment could be safely made. Nor has nature been deficient in providing it all the embellishments of a picturesque scenery. Surrounded by a group of mountains, embosoming numerous beautiful and luxuriant plains, it presents striking contrasts of hills and valleys, while groves of lofty pines, and the music of the flowing river, bordered by rocky and abrupt banks, exhibit a group of objects calculated to attract the admiration of the lover of nature, and to add to the value of this delightful, though still uncultivated spot. The Lackawana iron works, to which we have before alluded, are situated about seven miles below the Mount Vernon mills; and the operations conected with mining, will doubtless be soon extended to this place. Eight miles above is Carbondale, where the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company have mined all their coals; and it is the design of this company soon to advance their business to a point, one mile above the Mount Vernon mills, called White Oak Run. At that point they are now constructing a railroad, and it is their intention to mine fifty thousand tons of coal at this place during the next season. The extension of the enterprise to within one mile of the Mount Vernon mills estate, will add greatly to its value; especially as the business of the company will be directed to the property adjoining that place, as soon as circumstances will warrant it. The amount of coal that will be mined at the place called White Oak Run, is a greater quantity than was mined at Carbondale, in the year 1830; and the demand for coal increasing, as it has done, at a ratio of about 25 per cent, will ensure the transaction of a large amount of business at the estate of Mount Vernon mills. There then will be a ready market for country produce, as well as the nails and boards that will be yielded by this very valuable estate, as there will doubtless be concentrated a considerable population in the vicinity; and there will soon be finished a railroad to transport its agricultural and manufactured products to market. The estate, moreover, abounds in valuable pine timber, from which, it is estimated, that from four to five millions feet of boards may be collected.

The valley also posseses two important outlets in the Delaware and Hudson railroad and canal, and the North Branch canal. The Delaware and Hudson railroad commences at its northern end, and runs sixteen miles to Honesdale; from which point they have a canal one hundred and five miles, terminating at Rondout, upon the Hudson river; the whole line of the work being owned by the company, and employed in the transportation of coal. The North Branch canal extends from the mouth of the Lackawana one hundred and fifty miles to Columbia, and from that point forty-five miles to Havre de Grace, in the state of Maryland. The latter is a state work, originally designed to extend to the Chenango and Chemung canals, advancing to the line of the state of New

York. The state of Pennsylvania, however, has failed to complete the North Branch above the mouth of the Lackawana, the entire distance being about ninety miles, although forty miles had been finished. Could this work be completed, a market would be opened to five hundred thousand tons of coal each year, besides numerous other kinds of merchandise, that would naturally grow out of the extension of the work. The varied resources of the Lackawana Valley, its abundance of coal and iron, its agriculiural and manufacturing advantages, and the beauty of its scenery, will cause it to be a populous part of the state of Pennsylvania.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

LOCATION OF GOVERNMENT FUNDS—TRADE AND DUTIES OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, AND DUTIES AT BOSTON—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—COTTON TRADE—TABLE OF QUANTITY OF UNITED STATES LAND SOLD IN ELEVEN YEARS—INCREASE OF SLAVES IN ALL THE STATES IN LAST DECADE—CROPS OF COTTON, AND BANK CAPITAL—SLAVES IN COTTON STATES—ACRES OF LAND SOLD IN WESTERN STATES—INCREASE OF POPULATION, SALES OF LAND, AND DEBT OF EACH STATE—PROGRESS OF TRADE AT LIVERPOOL—EXPORTS OF ENGLAND TO INDIA AND CHINA—PAPER CIRCULATION OF ENGLAND—RAILROAD ENTERPRISE—DEMAND FOR CAPITAL, ETC., ETC., ETC.

THE market, generally, has, during the month, presented no material change. Business has been as usual, at this season of the year, with a limited demand for money for business purposes. The movements of the treasury department, in paying off the amount of government debt which fell due on the 1st of January, caused a considerable stringency in the discount market. To perfect this movement, large sums were necessarily withdrawn from the channels where they were previously employed—at the same time, the decline in the customs prevented those deposits from being re-supplied. The deposits of the government, at all points, have been, monthly, as follows:—

LOCATION OF GOVERNMENT FUNDS, PER OFFICIAL STATEMENTS.

	Dep. at Boston.	New York.	Wash'gton.	All oth. points.	Total.
June 24,....	$1,516,585	$4,388,161	$455,757	$2,084,933	$8,747,463
July 29,....	1,403.321	5,274,229	477,966	2,873,316	10,029,612
Aug. 26,....	1,772,685	6,103,501	495,719	3,537,195	11,520,995
Sept. 23,....	1,989,116	6,335,131	1,758,055	4,172,225	13,875,290
Oct. 28,....	2,138,297	5,372,005	2,510,378	4,538,425	13,820,251
Nov. 25,....	2,100,979	3,530,118	2,684,064	4,597,740	12,293,287
Dec. 30,....	2,265,950	3,847,839	1,861,841	4,425,624	12,401,254

The payment of $5,500,000 into the hands of capitalists, was followed by the re-investment of these sums in stocks of the best description, which advanced; while, at the same time, speculation in the fancy stocks subsided, and their prices fell. The movement of the trade of the United States, generally, is indicated in the following table of the quarterly exports, imports, and duties, at the port of New York, and the duties at Boston, for the past year:—

TRADE AND DUTIES OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, AND DUTIES AT BOSTON.

	Exports.					
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	Imports.	Duties.	Bost. duties.
1st qr.,	$7,355,854	$1,322,580	$8,678,134	$19,030,605	$5,537,033	$1,302,638
2d qr.,	7,320,970	1,120,730	8,441,700	19,659,358	5,478,588	1,505,856
3d qr.,	5,871,418	908,223	6,779,641	26,690,218	7,802,516	2,086,602
4th qr.,	4,795,549	869,793	5,665,342	9,860,282	2,823,658	1,005,635
	$25,343,691	$4,220,326	$29,624,017	$75,240,412	$21,641,795	$5,909,733

The business of the past year has been a large one, but at prices generally falling, particularly in the great article of cotton. The official reports of the department of the treasury, for five years, ending June 30, 1844, are as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Imports.

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843, 9 mo.	1844.
Free,.....	$57,196,204	$66,019,731	$30,627,486	$35,574,584	$24,766,082
Dutiable,.....	49,945,315	61,926,446	69,534,601	29,179,215	83,688,620
Total,.....	$107,141,519	$127,946,177	$100,162,087	$64,753,799	$108,434,702

Exports.

Dom. goods,....	$113,895,634	$106,382,722	$92,969,996	$77,793,783	$100,183,497
Foreign,.....	18,190,312	15,469,081	11,721,538	6,552,697	10,944,781
Total,.....	$132,085,946	$121,851,803	$104,691,534	$84,346,480	$111,128,278
Excess of exp.,	24,944,427	.....	4,529,447	19,592,681	3,693,576

The excess of exports, in all these years, is large; showing an apparent balance in favor of the United States. In the year 1843, this balance was real, and a large amount of specie was imported into the United States. In 1844, the reverse has been the case. The official figures give very little idea of the real state of the exchanges, or the balance of trade, inasmuch as that the imports are valued at the foreign cost; and, on their arrival here, the expenses and duties are added to them. In many cases, they are imported on foreign account, and sold at less than cost; in which case, there is less than the apparent amount to be remitted. When, however, they are sold at a profit, the cost, with the expenses and profits, is to be remitted, exclusive of the duties, which remain in the country. This makes the balance to go forward larger than the custom-house figures. A portion of the imports are made on American account; in which case, the invoice, or custom-house value, represents correctly the amount to be paid abroad. The exports are similarly situated. The custom-house values are the cost of the produce here. The amount actually sent abroad is, however, that for which the produce sells, be it more or less than the custom-house value. In 1843, it was more than the invoice price here, and a very large sum was brought home in specie. During the past year, however, the reverse has been the case, and immense losses have been sustained; as has also been the case with many other articles of export. These losses have grown, in the case of cotton, directly out of the speculative feeling that prevailed during the past year, emanating from the abundance of money; and to which, in former numbers, we have briefly alluded. The continued great supply of cotton, so much exceeding the demand, has pressed heavily upon the English markets, notwithstanding that exports from that country have been very large. It would appear that the spinners abroad are yet by no means satisfied that prices have seen their lowest, and therefore continue to purchase only according to their actual wants, which are, however, sufficiently large to have caused a rally in the market, at the close of the last year. The market is now evidently undergoing the natural reaction consequent upon the speculations of last year. Notwithstanding the heavy losses experienced by shippers, the high prices paid to the planters, and which were continued nearly down to the planting season, encouraged more extensive operations for the succeeding year, the fruits of which are pouring upon the markets, unchecked by any speculative operations. The probability is, however, that, while production will be discouraged by the disastrously low rates now current, the consumption of goods will be enhanced by the same cause; and that, hereafter, the rates will become more steady, at a higher range. Intimately connected with the large yield of the raw material, are the bank loans in the new cotton states, and the quantity of lands sold by the federal government in each year.

The following is a table of the number of acres sold in each of the new states, for a series of years:—

QUANTITY OF U. S. LAND SOLD IN THE FOLLOWING STATES.

Years.	Alabama.	Florida.	Arkansas.	Louisiana.	Mississip.	Tot. 5 St's.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
1833, ...	451,319	11,970	41,859	89,441	1,221,494	1,616,833
1834,.....	1,072,457	16,309	149,756	82,570	1,064,054	2,835,146
1835,.....	1,587,007	48,364	630,027	325,955	2,931,181	5,522,534
1836,.....	1,901,409	87,071	963,535	829,456	2,023,709	5,805,180
1837,.....	381,773	108,839	281,916	230,952	256,354	1,259,831
1838,.....	159,969	68,814	156,971	164,178	271,074	821,005
1839, ...	121,935	56,499	154,858	500,307	17,787	831,486
1840,.....	56,784	25,602	110,610	189,228	19,174	401,398
1841,.....	50,705	6,388	54,860	95,111	21,635	228,699
1842,.....	118,827	5,533	24,391	45,360	43,966	338,077
1843, 9 months,.	160,290	6,177	36,739	36,487	27,656	267,279
Total,.....	6,163,465	441,566	2,605,521	2,639,045	7,798,084	19,927,468

The great sales of land made in the years 1834-35-36, were not all for immediate settlement—a large portion were sold into the hands of speculators. It is, however, probable that, in after years, under the influence of the extensive sums borrowed in those states by issues of government stocks, for the establishment of banks, a large proportion of it became subject to culture. This becomes the more evident, when we compare the increase in slaves in the above states, and the aggregate increase in all the states, according to the census:—

INCREASE OF SLAVES IN ALL THE STATES, IN THE LAST DECADE.

Years.	Alabama.	Florida.	Arkansas.	Louisiana.	Mississip.	Total.	All oth. St's.
1830,.....	117,549	15,011	4,576	109,588	65,659	312,383	1,696,660
1840,.....	253,532	25,717	19,939	168,452	195,211	662,851	1,824,504
Increase,..	135,983	10,706	15,463	58,864	129,552	350,468	127,844

Here it is apparent that, in these five states, the increase of slaves was 110 per cent; while, in all the other slave states, it was only 8 per cent! We have the facts that, in the last decade, an addition of 350,468 took place in the working population, and of near 20,000,000 acres of land cultivated. We may now compare this movement with the other element of increased business—bank capital, and the aggregate growth of cotton in the five states mentioned, with the aggregate growth in all the states:—

CROPS OF COTTON, AND BANK CAPITAL.

Years.	Louisiana.	Alabama.	Florida.	Total.	All oth. St's.	Tot. crop.	B'k capital.
1833,.....	403,443	129,366	23,641	556,450	513,988	1,070,438	.....
1834,.....	454,719	149,978	36,738	641,435	562,959	1,204,394	$6,975,012
1835,.....	511,146	197,692	52,085	760,923	493,405	1,254,328	38,034,250
1836,.....	481,536	226,715	79,762	788,013	573,615	1,361,628	50,873,188
1837,.....	601,014	232,243	83,703	916,960	506,008	1,422,968	59,666,274
1838,.....	731,256	209,807	106,171	1,047,234	754,263	1,801,497	70,356,994
1839,.....	584,994	251,742	75,177	911,913	448,619	1,360,532	76,041,284
1840,.....	956,922	445,725	136,257	1,538,904	638,931	2,177,835	92,114,969
1841,.....	820,140	317,642	93,552	1,231,334	403,611	1,634,945	97,495,675
1842,.....	727,658	318,315	114,416	1,164,389	519,822	1,684,211	29,230,000
1843,.....	1,060,246	481,714	161,088	1,703,048	675,827	2,378,875	29,230,150
1844,.....	832,172	467,990	145,562	1,445,724	584,685	2,030,409	28,740,350

In this table, we have the facts that the whole increase in the production of cotton has been in those states where large sums were borrowed by the state governments to become the basis of enormous loans to individuals, in whose hands they were instrumental in the purchase of slaves, for the cultivation of new lands. The following is a table of the quantity

of land sold in the five states below enumerated, the increase of slaves in each state, and the amount of money borrowed by the government of each:—

States.	Acres sold.	Incr. of slaves.	Debt.
Alabama,.....	6,163,465	135,983	$11,500,000
Florida,.....	441,566	10,706	3,950,000
Arkansas,.....	2,605,321	15,463	3,500,000
Louisiana,.....	2,639,045	58,864	21,000,000
Mississippi,.....	7,798,084	129,552	7,500,000
Total,.....	19,927,468	350,327	$47,450,000

This gives the fact that near $50,000,000 was borrowed, and applied to the cotton culture. The breadth of land planted, increased near 20,000,000 of acres, and the slaves over 350,000. The result of this has been, that the quantity of cotton raised has increased near 1,000,000 bales, while that in the old states has remained stationary. In fact, it could not have increased; because neither their land, capital, or force increased. If we include Tennessee in the cotton states, the decennial increase of the slave population will be as follows:—

Increase of U. S. Slave Population, distinguishing the new Cotton States.

Years.	Six Cot. St's.	Per ct.	All others.	Per ct.	Total.	P. ct.
1810–20,.....	134,821	150	217,506	20	352,327	34.1
1820–30,.....	222,885	95	242,470	18	465,355	33.7
1830–40,.....	391,920	90	86,992	5½	478,912	34.1

In the last ten years, nearly the whole increase has been in the new states; while, in some of the old ones, the full force has not been maintained. To these causes must be ascribed that rapid and large supply of cotton, which has pressed so ruinously upon the markets, notwithstanding the immense increase which has taken place in consumption, throughout the world. The money borrowed by the states became the basis of $97,000,000 of bank loans, nearly the whole of which has been sunk; and the states, with the exception of Alabama, become bankrupt. That state, although it lost the money it borrowed, has ever maintained its payments; and its legislature is now organizing a system of taxation, finally to pay off its debt. It is not probable that during the next year any very large tracts will be brought into the culture of cotton, or that any large amounts of capital will be brought into the state for that mode of employment; while it is very possible, from the experience of the past, that at least all the increase of slave population will be diverted to sugar-planting, factory labor, and pursuits other than that of cotton-planting. In this view of the case, the prospect is, that the increase of supply will, for many years, be less than that of consumption, gradually diminishing the large stocks now on hand, and maintaining prices at a higher level; more particularly that the soil now under culture is as prolific as any new tracts that can be applied to that use. It has been the case with all agricultural products, as well as cotton, that the prolific nature of the new soils brought under cultivation has enabled the cultivators to reap a profit from the low prices, caused by the enhanced supply; while the farmers in the old states were unable to sell so low, and were in consequence driven into other business. The causes here pointed out as having tended to the depressed state of the cotton interests, have also operated, to a greater or less extent, upon all other articles. Thus, if we take the circle of the new lake states, for years corresponding to the above sales of land in the south-western states, the land reports give the following progress of settlement:—

Acres of Land sold in some of the Western States.

Years.	Ohio.	Illinois.	Indiana.	Michigan.	Iowa and Wisconsin.	Total.
1833,.....	551,153	360,240	554,681	447,780	.....	1,913,854
1834,.....	478,847	354,013	673,656	512,760	.....	2,019,276
1835,.....	661,435	2,096,629	1,586,904	1,817,247	217,543	6,379,758
1836,.....	1,282,991	3,199,708	3,245,344	4,189,823	646,133	12,563,999

ACRES OF LAND SOLD IN SOME OF THE WESTERN STATES—Continued.

Years.	Ohio.	Illinois.	Indiana.	Michigan.	Iowa and Wisconsin.	Total.
1837,.....	470,042	1,012,849	1,249,817	773,522	178,783	3,685,313
1838,.....	243,095	778,560	602,424	97,533	361,861	2,083,473
1839,.....	242,444	1,132,876	618,748	134,984	948,875	3,077,927
1840,.....	33,059	389,275	118,868	26,106	695,681	1,262,989
1841,.....	43,613	335,553	93,882	18,167	175,414	666,629
1842,.....	35,715	437,404	55,795	25,000	178,893	733,007
1843, 3 qs.	9,172	269,911	29,279	9,194	232,907	550,463
Total,	4,051,956	10,367,022	8,829,402	9,052,118	3,636,090	35,956,598

Of these sales of lands, a large portion was to speculators, but subsequently worked off into the hands of settlers, when the fever of speculation had somewhat subsided. The loans of the above states have been largely applied to the internal improvements, with the view of opening up the internal intercourse, and making the lands valuable, and their products available; while the increase in the population was as rapid.

INCREASE OF POPULATION IN TEN YEARS, SALES OF LAND, ACRES PER HEAD, AND DEBT OF EACH STATE.

	1830.	1840.	In. in 10 yrs.	A's sett. 11 yrs.	A. p. h., in.	Debt.
Ohio,.....	937,903	1,519,467	581,564	4,051,956	7	$19,276,751
Illinois,....	157,445	476,183	318,738	10,367,022	32½	12,160,230
Indiana,...	343,031	685,866	342,835	8,829,402	25¾	12,218,000
Michigan,.	31,639	212,267	180,628	9,052,118	50¼	3,171,392
Io. & Wis.,	none.	74,057	74,057	3,636,090	49	100,000
Total,	1,470,018	2,967,840	1,497,282	35,956,588	32.90	$46,926,373

These are features very similar to those which are apparent in the new cotton states, and have given a great impulse to the production of farm produce. These are circumstances which have, in the United States, operated powerfully to depress the money-value of United States exports, in foreign ports. These causes have, however, now ceased to operate, to a very considerable extent; and, in some instances, are reversed. This is the case with the money borrowed, and which was brought into the States, and disbursed for various purposes, among their inhabitants. The loss of credit has now been such, that not only will no more money be brought into the States, but that which was heretofore borrowed must be gradually returned; and it by no means follows that, within the period of their ultimate repayment, the productive wealth of those States will have been increased to an extent equal to the principal and interest of the sums to be returned. The average amount is payable in twenty years, and the average interest is 5½ per cent, or $2,500,000 per annum; which, for twenty years, amounts to $50,000,000; and, added to the principal, amounts to $97,900,000 to be produced, and sent out of the country, in the shape of actual wealth, or raw produce. It is not probable that the sums so borrowed will be so productive; and, therefore, the actual capital of the States will be less than it would have been had the money not been borrowed. The effect will probably become apparent, in a less rapid increase of production; which, in the case of cotton, has, for the last few years, greatly exceeded the consumption. This latter will, in all probability, continue to advance, with perhaps greater rapidity than ever, and overtake production; enhancing the money-value of American produce sold abroad. The progress of the trade in Liverpool has been as follows, for several weeks:—

WEEKLY IMPORT, CONSUMPTION, AND STOCK OF COTTON IN LIVERPOOL.

	1843.			1844.		
Jan. 1, to date.	Import.	Consumed.	Stock.	Import.	Consumed.	Stock.
October 4,...	1,421,890	1,040,690	776,080	1,297,666	1,993,820	900,770
" 11,...	1,438,624	1,079,870	743,630	1,325,596	1,015,810	908,360
" 19,...	1,441,560	1,097,640	728,500	1,346,752	1,047,720	893,310

WEEKLY IMPORT, CONSUMPTION, AND STOCK OF COTTON IN LIVERPOOL—Continued.

	1843.			1844.		
Jan. 1, to date.	Import.	Consumed.	Stock.	Import.	Consumed.	Stock.
Oct. 25,...	1,446,825	1,114,810	718,400	1,362,377	1,067,930	877,690
Nov. 1,...	1,457,454	1,127,850	715,990	1,367,665	1,103,600	857,020
" 8,...	1,462,374	1,152,090	696,360	1,368,680	1,134,230	826,910
" 15,...	1,466,504	1,171,670	680,920	1,407,203	1,167,310	832,090
" 22,...	1,484,110	1,192,300	677,890	1,423,528	1,193,700	821,720
" 29,...	1,489,547	1,218,760	656,980	1,443,382	1,221,180	812,710
Dec. 7,...	1,507,250	1,238,350	654,990	1,450,661	1,257,100	784,670
" 14,...	1,519,498	1,264,490	641,090	1,458,906	1,284,220	765,810

Last year, the import was much larger than this, and the consumption less. The progress for the ten weeks embraced in the above table, was as follows:—

	1843.			1844.		
	Import.	Consumption.	Stock.	Import.	Consumption.	Stock.
To Oct. 4,.....	1,421,890	1,040,690	776,080	1,297,666	993,820	900,770
To Dec. 7,.....	1,507,250	1,238,356	654,990	1,450,661	1,257,100	784,670
Increase,.	85,360	187,660	.....	153,001	263,280	.....
Decrease,.	.....	.....	11,090	.....	.....	116,100

The import this year exceeded that of last year by 67,641 bales; the consumption, 75,620; and the stock has diminished 5,010 bales more than last year, at the same period —notwithstanding which, last year was marked by a great speculation, and this year by a great depression, and the stock in the United States is 100,000 bales less than last year. The ratio of consumption in Liverpool is much greater than ever, and the supply is now diminishing. The exports from England, from January 1st, to December 1st, to the East Indies and China, were as follows:—

	1843.			1844.		
	Bengal.	Bombay.	China.	Bengal.	Bombay.	China.
Pl'n cot'ns, pkgs.	44,993	33,320	35,707	55,219	39,579	64,589
	£1,334,174	£948,499	£1,083,360	£1,642,707	£1,122,657	£1,905,328
Prints,.....pkgs.	2,868	1,895	4,408	4,341	2,729	4,597
	£92,157	£61,781	£163,979	£137,656	£91,653	£181,853
Cotton yarn, lbs.	9,367,997	3,591,882	7,276,176	14,145,622	5,660,214	3,004,301
	£431,341	£149,667	£292,851	£689,883	£254,723	£136,066

This displays a great increase in that trade; which is, however, of its nature, somewhat precarious. The great home trade of Great Britain is, however, considerably on the increase, and gives a firmness and steadiness to the market which it has not evinced for a long time. The harvest is good, and the horizon presents nothing to indicate an immediate colapse in the discount market. It appears that the banks have not yet been able to get into circulation as much of their paper as the new law allows them to issue. The following shows their position in that respect, down to the close of November:—

PAPER CIRCULATION OF ENGLAND.

	Allowed to issue.	Actual issue, Nov. 9.	Less than all'd.
203 private banks,.....	£5,153,407	£4,635,041	£518,366
73 joint stock "	3,495,443	3,220,171	275,272
Total country banks,...	£8,648,850	£7,855,212	£793,638
Bank of England, Nov. 10,	27,786,190	20,871,473	6,914,717
Total,.....	£36,435,040	£28,726,685	£7,708,355

This is a very large reserve, which the institution is allowed to put out; and which, for some weeks, it has been striving to do, on legitimate paper; notwithstanding which, the rate of money has somewhat advanced, under the demand for railroad enterprises, of which 220 new schemes have been sent in to the Board of Trade, for them to pass upon, according to law. These require a capital, in the aggregate, of £100,000,000, or

$500,000,000. This rage for railroads has become one of the features of the commercial world; and has, to a great extent, spread itself in this country, more particularly in the eastern sections, where near $20,000,000 of capital is required to carry out the new projects put afloat. Of these, eight companies in New Hampshire require $10,000,000.

This capital has now become more in demand; and, from causes indicated above, producing a continued fall in the prices of produce, and consequently of losses on the part of those engaged in commerce, the supply of money in the hands of those who usually have it to lend, is much less than usual. Some $7,000,000 has been sent out of the country, and large accumulations, of the previous year of small business, have been scattered over the face of the continent. In a former number, we alluded to large sales of goods made in the early part of the fall season, on credit, to dealers in the country; and to the prospect that, from the prices of produce in all sections, those bills would be very difficult of collection. This state of things is now beginning to make itself apparent, and to create some uneasiness. This, however, we cannot think will be of a very serious nature. The imports have fallen off to a very considerable extent; being, for the month of January, less than half the amount of the same month, in 1844. The money-value of American produce abroad is, at the same time, advancing; and will, by having a corresponding effect here, relieve the interior from the pressure which the decline of last year has involved them in. The same causes having produced a rise in the value of money in the Atlantic cities, must, as their action is diminished, be succeeded by a returning plenteousness. The value of money, like other commodities, depends, to a considerable extent, upon the demand; as the actual supply cannot materially vary. The demand consists in the extent of engagements in which dealers are induced occasionally to enter, from the facilities that are extended to them. Thus, the sale on credit of a large amount of goods last autumn, to country dealers, has, with the maturity of the notes, created an extra demand for money. The goods, for the most part, cannot be made to realize to money. On the other hand, had they been purchased for cash, as in the previous year, so far from creating any scarcity of money in the cities, it would have promoted its abundance. This was the case through the fall of 1843. As business advanced, contrary to common expectation, money was more plenty. The stocks of goods on the seaboard were converted into money, brought from the interior; while a balance of cash, due on the profitable sales of produce abroad, combined to make money more plenty, and cheaper in the discount market than ever before. The unprofitable business of the past year has induced exports of specie, while the money paid out into the interior, in the purchases of produce, has not returned to the Atlantic cities for goods which have been purchased on credit, and are unsaleable at the high prices they bear. In the present prospect, however, the coming year is likely to be one of large profits, and of continually advancing prices for most descriptions of produce. The exports of the latter are continually increasing in volume; and, as the surplus of our own markets is poured off into other countries, the money-value of the remainder is continually enhanced. In the last few years of low prices for produce, the practical effect has been, only for the producer to give a greater quantity of the produce of his labor for the same amount of money. This will produce the natural result of diminishing the quantity sent to market; and, by so doing, improve the profits, or that portion of the proceeds of sales applicable to the purchase of goods. It is an undoubted fact, that, notwithstanding the comparatively low prices of goods, the profits of manufacturers were never greater than now; the extreme low price of the raw material and supplies, with the reduced cost of production, leaving a greater margin from sale prices than ever, and affording a considerable margin for the advance of prices.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

LAW OF PATENTS—ORR'S AIR-TIGHT STOVES.*

In the Circuit Court of the United States, before Judge Sprague. Orr *vs.* Badger.

This was a bill in equity, brought to restrain the defendant, a stove-maker in Boston, from making air-tight stoves, for which a patent had been granted to the late Isaac Orr. The suit was brought before Dr. Orr's death, and an injunction was granted at the commencement of the suit, after the usual notice to the defendant, he making no opposition. After Orr's death, the suit was revived by the administratrix on his estate, (his widow;) and the defendant, having filed his answer, in which he denied the originality of Orr's invention, and alleged that the same sort of stoves had been made by a number of persons whom he named, before Orr's patent issued, moved to dissolve the injunction. The motion was heard before Judge Sprague, and a considerable number of affidavits were read on both sides. The material facts which appeared by evidence in the case, were as follows:—

In January, 1836, Dr. Orr took out his original patent for the air-tight stove; and, for a number of years after, he received considerable sums on account of his right, which was not disputed. In the year 1841, he brought a suit against William C. Hunneman & Son, for violating his patent. At the trial of this case, at the October term, 1842, Judge Story considered the specification so defective in form, that he would not sustain the action. Orr immediately surrendered his patent, filed an amended specification, and took out a new patent. He then brought a new suit against Hunneman & Sons, for a new infringement. Before this suit came to trial, Hunneman & Sons agreed to give Orr judgment for $5 damages, and costs; and a verdict was taken for that sum, and judgment entered accordingly. Hunneman & Sons subsequently paid the amount of the judgment.

The plaintiff produced a number of affidavits of stove-dealers and others, to show that they regarded Orr's invention as new, and that they were in circumstances in which they must have known if any such stove had been in common use previously. The defendant, on the other hand, produced a number of affidavits of persons, who swore that they had made and seen stoves precisely like Orr's, many years before his patent was issued, but most of them did not allege that they had seen or made any such stoves within thirteen years, until Orr's patent was issued. Some of the defendant's witnesses, however, swore there was no difference between Orr's stoves and the common sheet-iron stoves, but admitted that Orr had taught the best way of using these stoves. The case occupied three days in the hearing. Judge Sprague gave a very able opinion, of which the following is but an outline:—

This is a motion to dissolve an injunction regularly granted in the case. The case presented by the plaintiff is one of irreparable mischief; for though the remedy at law against persons infringing on a patent is in theory perfect, yet in practice it is not adequate. If the injunction be dissolved, other dealers will manufacture without license; and if the patent be good, the plaintiff will have no sufficient remedy. The continuance or dissolution of an injunction is entirely within the sound discretion of the Court. If the Court consider the right of the patentee doubtful, it is not simply on that ground required to dissolve the injunction. Other circum tances must be considered.

The evidence to support the plaintiff's right are—1. The issuing of the patent. 2. The quiet enjoyment under it for several years. 3. The judgment at law against Hunneman & Sons. 4. The affidavits of persons qualified to know, who regard the invention as

* As Dr. Orr's patent has been a matter of considerable discussion out of Court, it may be well enough to add that the effect of this decision will be, to enable Dr. Orr's administratrix to restrain by injunction, before a trial, all who violate the patent by making, selling, or using air-tight stoves.

new. It is to be observed that the defendant's answer does not deny the plaintiff's right of the defendant's own personal knowledge. The case, therefore, falls within the principle laid down in Poor *vs.* Carlton, (3 Sumner.)

In regard to the evidence to be derived from the letters patent. Formerly, patents were issued, as a matter of course, to all who applied. Now, no patent is issued without an examination of skilful persons into the specification and the subject of the claim. Under these circumstances, the issuing of the letters patent affords more evidence of the originality of the invention, than where they were only supported by the oath of the patentee. Besides this, Dr. Orr was in quiet enjoyment of the benefit of his invention for several years, under the original patent, and received considerable sums of money. This is *prima facie* evidence of the right. If the public submit to his claim for a reasonable time, it raises a presumption of right. This presumption is not changed in consequence of the original patent being surrendered, on account of its informality. The original patent was not void. It was efficacious for some purposes. It preserved the right of the patentee, which would have been lost had he permitted his stoves to be made without taking out any patent. The patentee was not a wrong-doer, as has been suggested by defendant's counsel, in the claim he made. The evidence of the right, afforded by the acquiescence of the public, is just as great as if the first specification had been formal.

It is contended, by the defendant's counsel, that the verdict and judgment in the case of Hunneman, being between other parties, can have no effect on him, and that no injunctions issue in England in consequence of such a judgment. But in Kay *vs.* Marsh, (1 M. and C., 373,) an injunction was granted in favor of a patentee, on the strength of a verdict against other parties alleged in the bill, and the submission of various persons to the patentee.

What I have stated, presents a strong case for the plaintiff. It is true that there are strong affidavits on behalf of the defendant, to show that the invention was not new. I shall make a few remarks on these affidavits. They may be divided into two classes. The first class, which speak of having made or seen stoves exactly like Orr's, say that it is from thirteen to twenty years since they saw or made them. Now, as Orr's claim is for a combination of particulars, it seems not unlikely that here is a defect of memory in supposing they had seen all the particulars combined together in one stove so long ago, when in fact they were all to be found only separately in several. It certainly seems highly improbable that if such stoves had ever been in use, they would have gone entirely out of use, as is supposed they did, before Dr. Orr's patent revived them. And though it is said, by the defendant's witnesses, that Dr. Orr only taught the mode of using the stoves, yet it certainly is a matter of surprise, if the stoves were made exactly like his, the mode of using them should never have occurred to anybody.

Another class of very respectable witnesses for the defendant, think these stoves have been in common use for fifty years. Yet it seems highly improbable that a patent should have been applied for in regard to a stove already in common use; that it should have been suffered to pass by the examiners; that it should have been acquiesced in by the public, and that a verdict and judgment should have been permitted by a defendant who had a real controversy with the patentee.

One other circumstance is worthy of remark. No stove like Orr's, made before his patent, has been produced. If such exist, they might be found. One witness has stated that he saw such a one at Bangor. If it had been produced, it would have been far more satisfactory to the Court.

The only effect of the defendant's affidavits is to render the final success of the plaintiff doubtful; but, as already said, that alone is not sufficient to dissolve the injunction under the circumstances which exist to sustain the plaintiff's right, quiet possession for a reasonable period, a judgment in his favor, and the irreparable injury which he would suffer by such a course. The injunction, therefore, ought not to be dissolved.

ACTION OF CONSIGNEES TO RECOVER THE VALUE OF CARGO.

In the Circuit Court of the United States, Pope *vs.* Nickerson, an action was brought by the consignees of the cargo against the owners of the schooner Annawan, of Massachusetts, to recover the value of the cargo, before Judge Story.

The cargo was shipped at Malaga, under bills of lading in the usual form, to be delivered at Philadelphia. The vessel put into Bermuda in distress—a part of the cargo, in perishable condition, was sold, and proceeds applied towards payment of repairs. To pay for the balance, a bottomry bond was given, intended to cover vessel, cargo, and freight; but, in the obligatory part, the word cargo was omitted. The vessel sailed, and was obliged to put back again, from stress of weather; and the estimate of repairs was so large, that the master did not deem it expedient to repair. A part of the cargo was in a perishable condition; and the whole, with the vessel, was sold, and the proceeds applied to the payment of the bottomry bond, and the balance paid to the master, who had not paid it over to the owners of vessel or cargo. Judge Story held—

1st. That the power of the master to bind his owner depended, in the absence of express instructions, upon the law of the place of the domicil of the owners, and not of the place where the contract was made, or the cargo to be delivered; and, in this case, was to be determined by the laws of Massachusetts, and not of Spain or Pennsylvania; and that the law of Massachusetts, limiting the liability of the owners of ships for the acts of the master, does not apply to contracts.

2d. That where, in the course of a voyage, the master sells a part of the cargo to pay for repairs, the ship-owners become indebted for the sum so applied, and the owners of the cargo have also a lien upon the vessel; and that the debt is not discharged by a subsequent loss of the ship.

3d. That if the bottomry bond did not in terms cover the cargo, yet, if it was the intention of the parties that it should, a Court of admiralty would reform it to meet that intention; and that, in the present case, the intention was evident, and the bond was to be considered as including the cargo.

4th. That the bond became due upon the return of the vessel to Bermuda, and breaking up of the voyage; and the holders had the right to have the vessel and so much of the cargo sold, as would be necessary to pay it, and to this extent the sale by the master was justifiable; and that the owners of the vessel were under no liability to the owners of the cargo, for the proceeds applied for the payment of the bond.

5th. That the sale of that part of the cargo not necessary to pay the bond, and which was in a sound state, and might have been forwarded, was unjustifiable and tortuous, and that the master was legally responsible to the owners of the cargo for all damages caused thereby; but that the liability of the owners of the vessel for the acts of the master being limited, by the laws of Massachusetts, to the value of the ship and freight, and at the time of the tortuous sale the whole value of the ship and freight being absorbed by the bottomry bond, they were not responsible to the owners of the cargo for such damages.

6th. That the owners of the vessel were liable to pay to the owners of the cargo the money, being proceeds of sales of the cargo, applied to the payment of repairs before the bottomry bond was given.

7th. That there was no general average now due; but what would otherwise have been due was to be considered as applied, as property of the ship-owners, to the payment of the bond, in relief of the owners of the cargo.

AGENT—ACTION TO RECOVER BALANCE OF AN ACCOUNT.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, (1844,) Boston. James Carter *vs.* Nathaniel F. Cunningham *et al.* This was an action to recover the balance of an account. The facts were these. The defendants, who are merchants in Boston, had been in the habit of sending Mr. Child, one of their firm to Mobile and other places at the South,

every winter, to pass about two months there, and attend to their business, and return in the spring. While there he sometimes transacted business as an agent for other firms, and among others for the plaintiff, who is also a Boston merchant. In the winter of 1837 and 1838 he sold goods in Alabama for the plaintiff, and received the proceeds. Advances had been made to the plaintiff, upon the shipment. This was at the time of the suspension of specie payments at the Southern banks, and the rate of exchange between Alabama and Boston was ten or twelve per cent in favour of the latter place. In accounting Mr. Carter, the defendants charged him with the rate of exchange on the proceeds received from the sale of his goods. Mr. Carter objected to the charge, and contended that they had no authority to remit the proceeds to Boston at such a sacrifice. The question whether there was any agreement between the parties as to the place where the payment or appropriation of the proceeds should be made, was left to the jury, who negatived the fact of any agreement on that point. The jury were instructed, that if there was no agreement, the inference was, that the money was to be paid in Boston, deducting the rate of exchange. A general verdict was rendered for the defendants. If the verdict should be sustained, the defendants were to be allowed the proper rate of exchange. Chief Justice Shaw delivered the opinion of the court. When property is consigned by a merchant in one place to a resident merchant in another, the whole duty of the latter is to sell the same, receive the payment, give notice to his consignor and hold the proceeds subject to his order. The consignee is not liable to an action to recover the proceeds, until the consignor has given him orders how to appropriate the same. But in this case Mr. Child was a temporary agent, to go to Alabama, and stay for a short time, in order to transact the business entrusted to him. It is the opinion of this court, that he should deduct therefrom the rate of exchange between the two places. It does not follow, because he sold goods for so many dollars and cents in Alabama, that he should account for so many silver dollars and copper cents here. Besides, under the present decision of the question, complete justice is done between the parties. The instructions are sustained, and an auditor is to be appointed, to ascertain the rate of exchange; if the defendants have charged the proper rate, judgment is to be rendered for the defendants; otherwise judgment for the difference.

INSPECTORS OF MERCHANDIZE.

The Court of Common Pleas, Philadelphia, Pa., Rockwell & Morris, *v.* Smith.

The defendant is the Inspector of butter and hog's lard under the act of 1835. The plaintiffs, before shipping lard to a foreign market, gave notice to the inspector that the shipment would be of the produce of the state of Kentucky; that each bag was marked in compliance with the laws of this state, with the name of the state which produced it; that the words "Leaf Lard Kentucky produce," were inscribed distinctly upon each separate keg, and that this inscription was placed on the kegs after it had been imported into this state. The defendant nevertheless demanded and received fees for the inspection of the lard. The plaintiffs, after paying the fees, brought the present suit to try the right of the inspector to interfere with the matter. The parties agreed upon the facts, and asked the judgment of the court upon the law arising upon them. The first section of the act of 1835 provides that hog's lard and butter, designed for exportation from any port on the river Delaware, shall be liable to be inspected. The second section provides that butter and hog's lard from any other state, which shall bear the brand of such state, may be exported from this state with the name branded thereon, without being liable to inspection. The act of 1836, passed to explain the foregoing provides that no produce imported into this state from any other state or country, shall be liable to inspection, if marked or branded with the name of the state whence it was originally brought, though the mark or brand may have been affixed thereto after its importation into this state. The only question was whether the produce above mentioned was liable to inspection. The court decided it was not, and gave judgment for the plaintiffs.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

PROGRESS OF THE SHIPPING OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

TABLE I.—*Showing the number of British vessels built and registered, belonging to the British Empire, from* 1801 to 1843, *inclusive.*

VESSELS BUILT AND REGISTERED.

Years.	United Kingd'm and possess. in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1801,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,065	122,593
1802,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,281	137,508
1803,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,407	135,692
1804,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	991	95,979
1805,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,001	89,584
1806,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	772	69,198
1807,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	770	68,000
1808,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	568	57,140
1809,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	596	61,396
1810,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	685	84,891
1811,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	870	115,638
1812,.....	Records destroyed by fire at custom-house.					
1813,.....						
1814,.....	706	86,075	158	11,874	864	97,949
1815,.....	912	102,903	271	25,637	1,183	128,540
1816,.....	852	84,676	422	32,725	1,274	117,401
1817,.....	758	81,210	324	23,219	1,082	104,429
1818,.....	753	86,911	306	17,455	1,059	104,366
1819,.....	775	88,985	350	23,188	1,125	112,173
1820,.....	635	68,142	248	16,440	883	84,582
1821,.....	597	59,482	275	15,365	872	74,847
1822,.....	571	51,533	209	15,611	780	67,144
1823,.....	604	63,788	243	22,240	847	86,028
1824,.....	837	93,219	342	50,522	1,179	143,741
1825,.....	1,003	124,029	536	80,895	1,539	204,924
1826,.....	1,131	119,086	588	86,554	1,719	205,640
1827,*....	911	95,038	529	68,908	1,440	163,946
1828,.....	857	90,069	464	50,844	1,321	140,913
1829,.....	734	77,635	416	39,237	1,150	116,872
1830,.....	750	77,411	367	32,719	1,117	110,130
1831,.....	760	85,707	376	31,290	1,136	119,997
1832,.....	759	92,915	386	43,397	1,145	136,312
1833,.....	728	92,171	431	52,476	1,159	144,647
1834,.....	806	102,710	425	55,817	1,231	158,527
1835,.....	916	121,722	455	63,230	1,371	184,952
1836,.....	709	89,636	441	66,604	1,150	156,240
1837,.....	1,005	135,922	510	71,306	1,515	207,228
1838,.....	1,147	161,459	606	79,947	1,753	241,406
1839,.....	1,278	186,903	703	109,025	1,981	295,928
1840,.....	1,448	220,064	771	143,288	2,219	363,352
1841,.....	1,192	168,309	668	132,857	1,860	301,166
1842,.....	971	133,275	510	74,347	1,481	207,622
1843,†....	698	83,097	.....	.....	.....	.....

* 1827. The falling off in the number of ships is only nominal. The new Registry Act (6 Geo. IV., cap. 110,) obliged the owners of all vessels to register them anew. By this, the actual number of existing ships was ascertained.

† The number of vessels built and registered in 1843, in the ports of the United Kingdom, only.

The Registry Act (6 Geo. IV., cap. 110,) came into operation in 1827, when it was found that the names of a large number of vessels had been retained in the register-book at the custom-house, which ought not to have been there; as the vessels had been lost, broken up, or sold to foreigners long before.

VESSELS BELONGING TO THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Years.	United Kingdom, and possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1801,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1802,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1803,.....	18,068	1,986,076	2,825	181,787	20,893	2,167,863
1804,.....	18,870	2,077,061	2,904	191,509	21,774	2,268,570
1805,.....	19,027	2,092,489	3,024	190,953	22,051	2,283,442
1806,.....	19,315	2,079,914	2,867	183,800	22,182	2,263,714
1807,.....	19,373	2,096,827	2,917	184,794	22,290	2,281,621
1808,.....	19,580	2,130,396	3,066	194,423	22,646	2,324,819
1809,.....	19,882	2,167,221	3,188	201,247	23,070	2,368,468
1810,.....	20,253	2,210,661	3,450	215,383	23,703	2,426,044
1811,.....	20,478	2,247,322	3,628	227,452	24,106	2,474,774
1812,.....	Records destroyed by fire at custom-house.					
1813,.....						
1814,.....	21,550	2,414,170	2,868	202,795	24,418	2,616,965
1815,.....	21,869	2,447,831	2,991	203,445	24,860	2,651,276
1816,.....	22,026	2,504,290	3,775	279,643	25,801	2,783,933
1817,.....	21,775	2,421,354	3,571	243,632	25,316	2,664,986
1818,.....	22,024	2,452,608	3,483	221,860	25,507	2,674,468
1819,.....	21,997	2,451,597	3,485	214,799	25,482	2,666,396
1820,.....	21,969	2,439,029	3,405	209,564	25,374	2,648,593
1821,.....	21,652	2,355,853	3,384	204,350	25,036	2,560,203
1822,.....	21,238	2,315,403	3,404	203,641	24,642	2,519,044
1823,.....	21,042	2,302,867	3,500	203,893	24,542	2,506,760
1824,.....	21,280	2,348,314	3,496	211,273	24,776	2,559,587
1825,.....	20,701	2,328,807	3,579	214,875	24,280	2,553,682
1826,.....	20,968	2,411,461	3,657	224,183	24,625	2,635,644
1827,.....	19,524	2,181,138	3,675	279,362	23,199	2,460,500
1828,.....	19,646	2,193,300	4,449	324,891	24,095	2,518,191
1829,.....	19,110	2,199,959	4,343	317,041	23,453	2,517,000
1830,.....	19,174	2,201,592	4,547	330,227	23,721	2,531,819
1831,.....	19,450	2,224,356	4,792	357,608	24,242	2,581,964
1832,.....	19,664	2,261,860	4,771	356,208	24,435	2,618,068
1833,.....	19,689	2,271,301	4,696	363,276	24,385	2,634,577
1834,.....	19,975	2,312,355	5,080	403,745	25,055	2,716,100
1835,.....	20,300	2,360,303	5,211	423,458	25,511	2,783,761
1836,.....	20,388	2,349,749	5,432	442,897	25,820	2,792,646
1837,.....	20,536	2,333,521	5,501	457,497	26,037	2,791,018
1838,.....	20,912	2,420,759	5,697	469,842	26,609	2,890,601
1839,.....	21,670	2,570,635	6,075	497,798	27,745	3,068,433
1840,.....	22,654	2,768,262	6,308	543,276	28,962	3,311,538
1841,.....	23,461	2,935,399	6,591	577,081	30,052	3,512,480
1842,.....	23,954	3,041,420	6,861	578,430	30,815	3,619,850
1843,.....	23,817	2,989,757	.....	.....	.....	.....

TABLE II.—*In the Reports of the Shipwreck Committees of* 1836 *and* 1843, *the following returns were made of Registers cancelled in* 1827, '28, '29; *in* 1833, '34, '35; *and in* 1842 *and* 1843; *the vessels being wrecked, foundered at sea, missing, or broken up, viz :—*

	1827–8–9.	1833–4–5.	1842.	1842.
Foundered,.....	211	311	5	.....
Broken up,.....	195	206	25	.....
Wrecked,.....	1,184	1,317	391	.....
Missing,.....	.....	63		
Total,.....	1,590	1,897	421	778
Under 50 tons,.....	374	423	.....	.....
Above 50 tons,.....	1,216	1,474	421	.....
Av. ann. lose of vess. above 50 tons,	405	491	421	.....

TABLE III.—*Showing the Annual Waste from all causes, and the proportion per cent which the annual waste bears to the number and tonnage in existence at the close of the year.*

ANNUAL WASTE FROM ALL CAUSES.

Years.	United Kingdom and possess. in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1815,.....	593	69,242	148	24,987	741	64,229
1816,.....	695	28,217	362	43,463	333	14,472
1817,.....	1,009	164,146	528	59,230	1,537	223,376
1818,.....	504	55,657	394	39,227	898	94,884
1819,.....	802	109,996	348	30,249	1,150	120,245
1820,.....	663	80,710	318	21,675	991	102,335
1821,.....	914	142,658	296	20,579	1,210	163,237
1822,.....	985	91,983	189	16,320	1,174	105,303
1823,.....	800	76,324	147	21,988	1,146	93,312
1824,.....	599	47,772	316	43,142	946	91,014
1825,.....	1,582	143,536	453	77,203	2,035	210,829
1826,.....	864	36,432	510	77,246	1,374	123,678
1827,.....	2,345	325.361	511	13,729	2,866	239,090
1828,.....	735	77.907	310	5,225	415	93,222
1829,.....	1,270	70,976	522	47,087	1,792	118,063
1830,.....	686	72,778	163	29,533	849	95,311
1831,.....	484	62,913	131	2,091	615	69,852
1832,.....	515	55,411	407	44,797	952	100,208
1833,.....	703	82,730	506	45,408	1,209	128,138
1834,.....	520	61,656	51	15,348	561	77,004
1835,.....	591	73,774	324	43,517	915	117,291
1836,.....	621	100,190	220	47,065	841	147,355
1837,.....	857	152,150	441	56,706	1,298	208.856
1838,.....	771	74,221	410	67,604	1,181	141,823
1839, ...	520	37,027	325	61,067	845	118,096
1840,.....	464	24,437	538	97,810	1,092	120,247
1841,.....	385	1,172	385	99,052	770	90,224
1842,.....	478	27,254	240	72,998	718	100,252
			ANNUAL WASTE PER CENT.			
1815,.....	2.711	2.828	4.094	12.231	2.980	2.395
1816,.....	3.150	1.126	.....	.....	1.299	0.519
1817,.....	4.033	6.779	14.785	24.311	6.064	8.381
1818,.....	2.288	2.269	11.312	17.680	3 912	3.547
1819,.....	3.615	4.486	9.985	14.082	4.526	4.509
1820,.....	3.017	3.309	9.339	10.342	3.909	3.863
1821,.....	4.221	6.055	8.755	10.070	4.833	6.375
1822,.....	4.637	3.972	5.552	8.019	4.674	4.180
1823,.....	3.801	3.314	4.200	10.784	4.669	3.722
1824,.....	2.814	2.034	9.899	20.620	3.816	3.555
1825,.....	7.646	6.610	12.657	35.913	8 381	8.255
1826,.....	4.120	1.517	13.945	34.461	5.579	4.677
1827,.....	12.010	14.916	13.904	4.918	12.310	9.717
1828,.....	3.741	3.552	.....	.....	1.722	3.701
1829,.....	6.645	3.226	12.019	14.852	7.640	4.452
1830,.....	3.577	3.305	3.584	8.943	3.580	3.760
1831,.....	2.488	2.829	.....	.....	2.541	2.700
1832,.....	2.771	2.538	8.530	12.575	3.900	3.823
1833,.....	3.570	3.642	10.775	12.499	4 916	4.856
1834,.....	2.603	2.666	1.003	3.801	2.239	2.835
1835,.....	2.911	3.125	6.217	10.276	3.588	4.100
1836,.....	3.041	4.263	4.050	10.626	3.292	5.276
1837,.....	4.173	6.520	8.016	12.372	4.985	3.900
1838,.....	3.686	3.070	7.198	14.389	4.404	4.906
1839,.....	2 399	1.440	5.319	12.267	3.045	3.848
1840,.....	2.048	.917	8.528	18.004	3.459	3.631
1841,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2 562	2.853
1842,.....	1.995	.896	3.498	.....	2.330	2.769

BRITISH VESSELS BUILT, ETC., IN PERIODS OF FIVE YEARS.

TABLE IV.—*Showing the average number and tonnage of vessels built, registered, and waste, from all causes, in periods of five years.*

5 y'rs. ending	Vessels built.		Vessels registered.		Av. waste, from all causes.	
	Av. No.	*Av. Tonnage.*	*Av. No.*	*Av. Tonnage.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1805,.....	1,149	104 9-10	21,573 3 y'rs.	104 3-4	No av. for these yrs., there being no account of prize vessels regist'd in each year.	
1810,.....	678	100 4-10	22,778	102 4-10		
1815,... 3 years,	583	121 4-10	24,461	105 9-10		
1820,.....	1,084	96 1-2	25,487	104 4-10	4.173	4.500
1825,.....	1,043	110 1-2	23,855	103	5.300	4.500
1830,.....	1,349	118	23,818	*106 1-3	6.130	5.285
1835,.....	1,208	123 1-4	24,725	107 8-10	3.480	3.696
1840,.....	1,723	146 7-10	27,034	109 8-10	.....	.....
1842,... 2 years,	1,670	152 1-4	30,433	107 1-10	.....	.....

BRITISH VESSELS LOST, ETC., IN FIVE YEARS.

TABLE V.—*Abstract account of vessels lost, &c., during five years, compiled from various sources, showing the number of each class in the register of shipping.*

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.
Lost,.....	311	194	111	115	914
Wrecked,.....	379	425	544	650	
Stranded,.....	108	83	71		
Burnt,.....	18	24	15	24	23
Foundered,.....	52	61	64	154	259
Abandoned,.....	94	84	66	68	.....
Sunk,.....	62	95	83	.....	.....
Run down,.....	33	50	46	35	45
Missing,.....	91	57	56	59	80
Condemned,.....	35	42	30	42	50
Captured,.....	1	2	.....	.....	.....
Broken up,.....	19	8	11	20	48
Totals,.....	1,203	1,125	1,097	1,147	1,419
Classed A,.....	103	125	119	151	184
" *Æ,.....	16	17	26	30	49
" Æ,.....	106	96	79	96	153
" E,.....	58	40	32	23	46
" I,.....	1	4	.....	2	1
No character,.....	48	52	33	28	59
Not classed,.....	871	791	811	817	929
Totals,.....	1,203	1,125	1,097	1,147	1,419
British,.....	911	804	750	808	979
Foreign,.....	292	321	347	339	440
Totals,.....	1,203	1,125	1,097	1,147	1,419
Crews saved,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,011
" part lost,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	157
" all lost,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	144

* Act 6, Geo. IV., c. 110, came into operation in 1827, when a number of vessels were found to have been lost, whose registers had not been cancelled, amounting at least to 1,500 ships, or very nearly 6½ per cent on that year, which would reduce the average of the five years ending 1830, to 4.130 per cent.

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF NEW YORK, 1844.

Mr. James Thorn, boarding officer of the United States Revenue Department, Whitehall, furnishes the following statement of arrivals at the port of New York, from foreign ports. There were steamers, 3; ships, 471; barques, 351; brigs, 929; galliots, 8; schooners, 443; sloops, 3. Total, 2,208; of which there were—

	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.
American,	413	209	606	347
British,	21	43	178	79
Bremen,	17	24	13	1
Swedish,	13	26	49	3
Hamburg,	5	14	7	2
Belgian,	.	7	2	.
French,	.	7	4	.
Norwegian,	.	10	18	2
Sicilian,	.	2	10	.
Danish,	1	1	11	2
Dutch,	.	2	2	.
Russian,	1	2	3	.

	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.
Prussian,	1	8	.
Austrian,	1	2	.
Sardinian,	1	1	1
Hanoverian,	.	3	1
Venezuelian,	.	5	1
Neapolitan,	.	2	.
Portuguese,	.	1	2
Colombian,	.	2	2
Spanish,	.	1	.
Genoese,	.	1	.
Buenos Ayrean,	1	.	.

Besides, British steamers, 3; Dutch galliots, 6; Hanoverian galliots, 2; American sloops, 3. The foreign arrivals in each year, from 1839 to 1844, inclusive, were—

In 1839,	2,159	In 1842,	1,960
1840,	1,953	1843,	1,832
1841,	2,118	1844,	2,208

The arrival of British vessels, included in the above, were—

In 1839,	337	In 1842,	389
1840,	307	1843,	271
1841,	334	1844,	324

The number of passengers arrived, during the undermentioned years, were—

In 1839,	48,152	In 1842,	74,949
1840,	62,797	1843,	46,302
1841,	57,337	1844,	61,002

Coastwise Arrivals at New York, in 1844.

	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Tot.
January,	29	11	51	231	322
February,	60	23	62	198	343
March,	48	23	60	344	475
April,	29	14	46	388	477
May,	29	14	55	365	463
June,	23	10	46	395	474
July,	12	4	44	415	475
August,	14	3	36	469	522
September,	8	.	48	425	481
October,	17	7	37	415	476
November,	16	6	45	392	459
December,	23	9	57	304	393

Whole number, as above,	5,360
Which, added to the foreign,	2,208
Makes a total, for the year, of	7,568
Whole number, last year,	6,566
Increase,	1,002

Note.—In the above, there are no sloops included; which, if added to the many schooners from Virginia and Philadelphia, with wood and coal, which are never boarded, (owing to the remoteness of the points at which they come in,) would make the number much greater.

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS OF NEW YORK—1841-44.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FROM JANUARY 1, TO DECEMBER 31, IN 1841, '42, '43, and '44, OF THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES:

	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.
Apples,.....bbls.	13,463	15,006	8,361	3,957
Ashes, pot,.....	40,532	43,041	31,778	21,453
" pearl,.....	9,706	2,584	3,879	2,973
Beef, pickled,.....	61,648	36,048	24,195	21,207
" dried,.....	2,491	6,999	2,002	2,154
Beeswax,.....cwts.	6,387	7,154	4,451	2,481
Brandy,.....pipes	.....	10	10	5
" .....hf. pipes	98	169	258	313
" .....qr. casks	146	123	113	485
Butter,.....firkins	28,761	48,034	26,939	28,681
Candles, sperm,.....boxes	10,383	11,856	11,384	5,698
" tallow,.....	27,791	23,326	9,234	7,727
Cassia,.....mats and cases	14,330	28,947	25,752	9,279
Cheese,.....casks	11,241	8,964	5,217	4,786
" .....boxes	77,173	62,112	20,688	23,945
Clover-seed,.....tcs.	3,519	1,561	4,312	3,907
Cochineal,.....ceroons	52	118	675	709
Cocoa,.....bags	7,304	13,071	5,532	6,408
Coffee,..... .....casks	101	32	230	137
" .....bbls.	347	234	531	1,205
" .....bags	54,742	19,401	18,514	13,593
Corn,.....bush.	242,886	51,301	155,795	140,963
Corn-meal,.....hhds.	3,959	6,084	6,814	6,430
" .....bbls.	32,631	28,715	25,806	31,680
Cordage,.....coils	3,805	2,559	1,825	2,266
Cotton,.....bales	325,460	164,354	169,214	166,315
Dye-woods—Logwood,.....tons	7,817	7,014	6,927	9,351
Fustic,.....	779	1,281	1,718	1,442
Nicaragua,.....	121	196	408	243
Dom. cottons,.....bbls. and cs.	21,939	30,435	19,729	14,897
Fish—Dry cod,.....cwts.	42,653	40,559	33,941	30,033
" mackerel,.....bbls.	2,276	3,859	4,649	3,890
" herring,.....	6,467	5,898	4,517	4,157
Flaxseed,.....tierces	3,924	4,131	3,666	4,129
Flour, wheat,.....bbls.	347,249	274,881	325,869	311,321
" rye,.....	6,669	8,798	10,617	11,919
Gin, foreign,.....pipes	10	12	71	86
Gunpowder,.....kegs	11,821	8,233	4,405	5,224
Hams and bacon,.....cwts.	9,481	8,235	5,627	4,365
Hides,.....	45,615	53,633	31,286	4,244
Hops,.....bales	3,093	2,842	5,276	444
Indigo,..... .....cases	39	41	137	26
" .....ceroons	96	154	330	185
Lard,..... .....kegs	198,094	188,687	155,085	39,918
Nails,.....casks	7,857	9,248	6,344	9,721
Lumber—Shks, hd. and pp.,.....	29,322	23,759	26,535	20,518
Boards and plank,.....M. ft.	5,689	4,748	4,831	3,397
Staves and heading,.....M.	4,649	3,239	4,155	5,500
Hoops,.....	1,797	1,000	869	946
Shingles,.....	2,423	1,761	1,109	2,742
Naval stores—Rosin,.....bbls.	105,225	82,844	58,481	55,021
Sp. Turpentine,.....	2,127	1,702	1,175	1,197
Tar,.....	26,049	35,347	27,465	35,613
Turpentine,.....	207,908	202,049	188,206	128,078
Pepper,.....bags	5,111	2,187	1,692	3,265
Pimento,.....	3,305	5,247	11,864	11,384
Pork,.....bbls.	90,772	48,962	78,947	50,836
Oils—Olive,.....baskets, &c.	2,338	1,208	962	3,411
Linseed,.....galls.	21,100	14,300	14,800	11,100

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS OF NEW YORK, ETC.—Continued.

	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.
Oil—Whale,.....gallons	2,368,966	2,567,916	2,445,806	2,549,788
Sperm,.....	389,332	472,563	275,227	144,682
Rice,.....tierces	23,628	28,100	19,307	11,558
Rum, foreign,.....puncheons	518	568	1,200	1.318
" American,.....bbls.	4,235	1,767	1,573	5,075
Saltpetre,.....bags	28	1,339	6,100	5,371
Sugars—White Havana,.....boxes	525	266	841	.....
Brown Havana,.....	5,039	2,857	2,356	528
Manilla, &c.,.....bags	.....	5,511	.....	1,052
Muscovado,.....hhds.	1,227	343	1,115	141
Refined,.....cwts.	19,121	9,066	18,643	61,296
Silks,.....bags	1,023	659	922	1,337
Soap,.....boxes	44,114	33,960	24,810	27,678
Teas—Blacks,.....lbs.	133,256	64,652	9,142	3,658
Hyson skin,.....	68,492	16,875	3,808	183
Hyson and Young Hyson,.....	263,772	179,462	22,510	3,800
Gunpowder and Imperial,.....	107.251	215,283	13,326	4,316
Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds.	5,525	6,771	7,701	9,278
" .....bales, &c.	8,150	12,980	12,863	8,037
" manufactured, ...kegs	15,487	10,799	11,702	13,616
Whalebone,.....cwts.	13,668	14,521	11,013	11,797
Wheat,.....bushels	58,282	44,885	100,323	65.159
Whiskey,.....bbls.	736	70	1,159	1,204
Wool,.....bales	106	64	1,000	362

COMMERCE OF THE ERIE AND CHAMPLAIN CANAL.

Statement of Property left at Albany, on the Erie and Champlain Canals, or which was left between that place and the Collector's office next in order on the Canal; showing the quantity and average value of each article, during the years 1844 *and* 1843, *derived from the Collector's books, at Albany.*

THE FOREST.

	1844.		1843.	
Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Furs and peltry,.....lbs.	391,900	$489,900	319,700	$319,700
Boards, &c.,.....1,000 feet	118,447,000	2,063,900	89,102,800	1,381,094
Shingles,.....M.	47,480	142,440	30,086	111,665
Timber,.....100 c. feet	35,671	1,070	2,513	540
Staves,.....lbs.	79,215,400	316,861	24,108	192,861
Wood,.....cords	9,515	81,321	10,875	51,561
Ashes,.....bbls.	36,771	808,962	37,786	.....

AGRICULTURE.

Pork,.....bbls.	32,895	296,055	27,018	283,690
Beef,.....	25,880	129,410	25,402	133,361
Cheese,.....lbs.	8,052,800	402,640	8,165,200	449,087
Butter,.....	5,498,500	697,312	7,455,800	745,580
Lard,.....	1,612,400	104,807		
Wool,.....	3,621,800	1,376,284	3,212,500	867,375
Hides,.....	31,200	1,100	.....	.....
Flour,.....bbls.	1,507,707	6,784,682	1,297,897	5,918,410
Wheat,.....bush.	234,075	224,712	138,542	138,452
Rye,.....	21,634	15,141	18,881	13,028
Corn,.....	14,993	7,497	114,628	65,338
Barley,.....	83,042	367,817	350,451	189,265
Other grain,.....	484,042	164,574	475,401	142,621
Bran and ship-stuff,.....	714,662	242,985	420,316	58,844
Peas and beans,.....	7.715	12,574	4,411	4,411
Potatoes,.....	7,163	2,687	14,905	3,726
Dried fruit,.....lbs.	481,500	38,520	311,100	24,888
Cotton,.....	12,800	961	14,000	1,890

AGRICULTURE—Continued.

Articles.	1844. Quantity.	1844. Value.	1843. Quantity.	1843. Value.
Tobacco,.....	114,100	$12,551	1,347,700	$148,247
Clover grass-seed,.....	2,219,900	155,393	2,136,200	149,535
Flaxseed,.....	774,500	15,490	464,300	9,286
Hops,.....	553,500	71,955	342,500	23,975
MANUFACTURES.				
Domestic spirits,.....gallons	480,704	120,176	522,975	156,893
Leather,.....lbs.	1,381,500	366,363	973,800	219,106
Furniture,.....tons	438	87,490	389	77,820
Bar and pig lead,.....	20	1,612	626	50,096
Pig iron,.....	170	5,087	14	428
Iron-ware,.....	53	4,220	24	1,677
Domestic woollens,.....	76	204,390	84	201,600
Domestic cottons,.....	380	235,507	319	159,400
Salt,.....	62,273	873,340	9,624	130,616
Merchandise,.....	39	14,035	68	23,678
OTHER ARTICLES.				
Stone, lime, clay,.....tons	10,448	31,345	7,058	21,173
Gypsum,.....	157	783	281	1,407
Mineral coal,.....	8,616	9,693	1,824	10,943
Sundries,.....	8,307	661,604	10,258	20,632
AGGREGATES.				
Forest,.....tons	291,718	3,904,459	218,628	2,992,700
Agriculture,.....	221,294	11,124,647	188,976	9,370,398
Manufactures,.....	99,264	1,698,185	18,920	927,636
Merchandise,.....	39	14,035	68	23,678
Other articles,.....	20,528	706,425	19,421	854,155
Total,.....	632,843	$17,647,751	441,013	$14,238,567

Statement showing the aggregate quantity and value of property cleared at the Collector's office, in the city of Albany, in the years 1843 *and* 1844, *and also the amount of tolls received.*

	1844.	1843.
Tons,.....	82,400 00	62,316 00
Value,.....	$22,179,371 00	$17,754,796 00
Tolls,.....	360,535 46	274,495 64

The following statement shows the aggregates of the property which was left and cleared at West Troy, during the years 1843 and 1844, and also the amount of tolls received during the same time:—

PROPERTY LEFT.

	1844. Quantity.	1844. Value.	1843. Quantity.	1843. Value.
Forest,.....tons	253,483	$3,811,578	197,525	$2,963,941
Agriculture,.....	157,420	9,746,157	154,606	8,751,529
Manufactures,.....	10,563	2,301,942	15,573	1,863,524
Merchandise,.....	206	72,118	133	45,271
Other articles,.....	42,071	1,618,861	25,433	813,767
Total,.....	463,744	$17,551,656	393,270	$14,138,032

PROPERTY CLEARED.

	1844.	1843.
Tons,.....	126,299 00	106,051 00
Value,.....	$30,963,032 00	$24,503,692 00
Tolls,.....	321,532 78	291,450 48

There is, it will be noticed, a large increase in 1844, over that of 1843. The increase in flour is 209,810 bbls. Wool has increased 400,000 lbs.; leather, 400,000 lbs.; domestic cotton, 61 tons. The total increase in value over 1843, is $3,409,184. There is an error in the article of staves, but we cannot correct it.

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF BOSTON, IN 1844.

The following tables embrace the arrivals and clearances at the port of Boston, for each month of the year 1844, commencing on the 1st of January, and ending on the 30th of December, 1844:—

Arrivals.

	Foreign.				*Coastwise.*				
	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
January,....	3	7	19	8	12	18	32	147	3
February,..	9	18	41	22	24	26	26	100	3
March, ...	9	16	40	34	24	21	39	215	16
April,.....	14	22	71	112	10	13	49	395	13
May,.....	11	21	72	141	14	18	64	466	13
June,.....	9	16	64	147	5	14	81	464	21
July,.....	11	21	65	198	7	17	97	432	15
August,....	18	25	55	147	6	12	89	293	14
September,.	32	16	45	165	2	11	96	415	10
October,....	24	20	50	121	1	12	71	398	15
November,..	4	16	40	91	2	9	71	336	16
December,..	12	16	36	51	14	20	70	347	13
	156	214	598	1,237	121	191	785	4,008	152
					156	214	598	1,237	000
Tot. No. of arrivals for the year 1844,....					277	405	1,383	5,245	152

Of the above, 15 barques, 131 brigs, 1,009 schooners, were British; 2 barques, 5 brigs, Sicilian; 1 barque, 4 brigs, Swedish; 2 ships, 1 brig, Bremen; 1 barque, 2 brigs, Prussian; 1 brig, German; 4 brigs, Hamburgian; 1 brig, Dutch; 1 barque, Norwegian; 1 brig, Sardinian; 1 barque, Austrian; and the remainder American.

Clearances.

	Foreign.				*Coastwise.*				
	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships.	Bques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps.
January,.	7	17	28	24	12	16	26	44	4
Feb'ry,..	8	21	30	16	14	15	21	50	0
March,..	11	25	43	21	32	17	46	138	11
April,.....	10	15	49	103	19	20	49	183	11
May,.....	9	13	50	113	6	20	62	196	15
June,.....	6	21	29	135	18	16	81	164	9
July,.....	10	20	60	169	10	20	71	130	6
August,.	6	19	50	155	10	19	73	151	8
Sept'r,...	3	11	40	131	15	14	59	157	14
October,.	10	12	40	128	31	19	50	186	13
Nov'r,...	7	18	47	100	18	19	60	161	10
Dec'r,....	6	9	39	71	19	16	29	67	4
	93	202	515	1,166	205	211	627	1,627	104
					93	202	515	1,166	000
Tot. No. of clearances for the year 1844,.					298	413	1,142	2,793	104

Of the above, 15 barques, 130 brigs, 1,025 schooners, were British; 3 barques, 5 brigs, Sicilian; 1 barque, 3 brigs, Swedish; 2 ships, 1 brig, Bremen; 1 barque, 2 brigs, Prussian; 1 brig, German; 4 brigs, Hamburgian; 1 brig, Dutch; 1 barque, Norwegian; 1 brig, Sardinian; and the remainder American.

A large number of wood coasters have also arrived, which are not included in the above estimate. The disparity between the arrivals and clearances is owing to the fact that a great number of the vessels which are reported as arrived, do not clear at the custom-house before sailing, being under license.

During the year, the royal mail steamship Britannia, running between this port and Liverpool, has entered and cleared at the custom-house four times. The Hibernia has entered five, and cleared six times. The Caledonia has entered and cleared five times. The Acadia has entered five, and cleared four times.

SHIP-BUILDING IN BALTIMORE, 1844.

The following table, furnished by Lyford, of the Baltimore Commercial Journal, exhibits the descriptions, names, and capacities of the vessels built in Baltimore, in the year 1844, with the date of their admeasurement; but all have not yet been admeasured, or were not before the 1st instant; including which, as well as those now in progress of being built, which will be brought into next year's account, and their burthen amounts to about 3,500 tons. The increase of tonnage for the year 1844 over 1843, is, as will be seen at foot, 2,439.60 tons.

				Tons.	
1843	December	26.	Brig Republic,.....	190.67	Z. & J. Skinner.
1844	January	9.	Bque. Nautilus,.....	283.33	W. & G. Gardner.
	March	8.	Schr. Log-Cabin,.....	43.69	J. C. Ely.
	"	14.	Schr. Boston,.....	72.20	Bailey & Randolph.
	"	14.	Schr. Farmer's Delight,	37.37	Robert Cully.
	April	10.	Brig Ariel,.....	161.13	A. Flannigain.
	"	10.	Bque. Lætitia,.....	274.93	C. Goodwin.
	"	11.	Schr. John Edmondson,	46.54	Built at Oxford.
	May	16.	Bque. Home,.....	377.35	Abrahams & Cooper.
	"	22.	Brig Orbit,.....	171.22	Brown & Cottrell.
	"	23.	Bque. St. Joseph,.....	305.59	Z. & J. Skinner.
	June	11.	Brig Brazilliance,.....	201.23	C. Goodwin.
	"	12.	Sloop Express,.....	50.44	A. & E. T. Robb.
	"	14.	Schr. Kate Pendergast,.	143.43	S. Butler.
	"	21.	Brig Mary M. Hooper,	160.39	Built in Dorchester.
	July	3.	Schr. Pearl,.....	76.44	Z. & J. Skinner.
	"	3.	Schr. Watchman,.....	53.12	W. Skinner.
	"	16.	Schr. Ann Eliza,.....	51.84	R. Lamdin.
	"	31.	Bque. Isabel,.....	233.74	Abrahams & Cooper.
	August	9.	Brig Juliet,.....	207.37	Samuel Butler.
	"	16.	Brig Aug. Birckhead,.	147.87	W. & G. Gardner.
	"	24.	Brig Selina,.....	200.50	L. H. Durkin.
	September	4.	Schr. Fulton,.....	87.88	A. Flannigain.
	"	6.	Schr. Dart,.....	147.87	W. & G. Gardner.
	"	13.	Schr. Iowa, ...	100.39	Built at Oxford.
	"	13.	Stm'r J. Marshall,.....	442.81	.....
	October	9.	Brig Virginia,.....	137.86	Built at Oxford.
	"	16.	Schr. Ion,.....	50.41	W. Skinner.
	"	21.	Brig Erato,.....	203.20	Z. & J. Skinner.
	"	29.	Schr. Eye,.....	70.30	W. F. Smith.
	"	30.	Schr. Juanito,.....	85.53	Built at Dorchester.
	November	2.	Schr. Ontwa,.....	46.32	Seymour & Hunt.
	"	6.	Schr. Vermont,.....	100.47	Built at Dorchester.
	"	6.	Brig Frolic, ...	212.30	W. & G. Gardner.
	December	3.	Schr. Powhatan,.....	86.69	A. Flannigain.
	"	5.	Schr. Americana,.....	58.14	W. Skinner.
	"	5.	Schr. Kent,.....	57.10	R. Lamdin.
	"	6.	Schr. Gratitude,.....	87.35	S. Butler.

VESSELS BUILT IN BALTIMORE IN THE UNDERMENTIONED YEARS.

1844.	1843.		1842.		1841.	
Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
5,454.72	20	3,015.17	34	4,407.37	41	5,338.10

SHIPS BUILT AT PORTLAND, IN 1844.

It is stated, in the Portland Advertiser, that thirty-five vessels have been built in the district of Portland, during the year 1844. The aggregate tonnage of the vessels is 10,033. The following are the names of the ships and barques:—*Ships:* Bertrand, 395 tons; Elizabeth, 531; Element, 449; Helen Augusta, 448; Frances, 395; Edgar, 420; Warren, 450. *Barques:* Mary Ellen, 447; Attica, 349; Jubilee, 233; Floyd, 223; Countess, 266; Empire, 284; Winnipiac, 339; Juniata, 299; Pilgrim, 298; Murillo, 309; Odd Fellow, 242; Mivaera, 211; J. E. Donald, 343; Sarah Ann, 431; Sylphion, 350. A ship of 400 tons is now on the stocks.

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF BALTIMORE, 1844.

ARRIVALS OF SHIPPING AT BALTIMORE, IN 1844.

The following is a list of foreign and coastwise arrivals at the port of Baltimore, during the year 1844, made up from the monthly tables published in the Baltimore American:—

	Foreign.				Coastwise.			
	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.
January,.....	5	.	4	5	2	4	14	59
February,.....	5	6	16	8	.	4	18	41
March,.....	1	4	9	12	3	7	14	75
April,.....	4	6	20	16	.	4	9	90
May,.....	3	2	25	16	1	6	17	85
June,.....	6	1	21	9	1	6	17	65
July,.....	4	7	19	13	5	7	20	92
August,.....	8	4	14	5	.	4	17	70
September,.....	17	4	23	10	2	4	15	75
October,.....	4	5	12	10	1	1	12	86
November,.....	1	8	19	11	2	3	12	95
December,.....	2	1	16	12	.	5	17	96
Total,.....	60	48	198	127	17	55	182	929

The whole number of arrivals, during the year 1844, was 1,620. Of this number, 1,508 were American, 65 British, 34 Bremen, 4 Hanoverian, 2 Swedish, 2 Spanish, 1 Oldenburg, 1 Sardinian, 1 Holland, 1 Hamburg, and 1 Danish.

PROGRESS OF THE NEW ENGLAND WHALE FISHERY.

The annual statement of this important branch of commerce, including the imports and exports of oil and whalebone, average prices, progress of the fishery, &c., as published in the Whaleman's Shipping List, contains matter of much interest to those engaged in the whale fishery. From it, we learn that the imports of sperm oil and whalebone into the United States, from January 1, 1844, to January 1, 1845, in 199 ships and barques, 23 brigs, and 16 schooners and sloops, are 139,594 bbls. sperm, 262,047 do. whale oil, and 2,532,445 lbs. bone.

IMPORTS OF SPERM AND WHALE OIL, FROM 1838 TO 1845, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Sperm.	Whale.	Years.	Sperm.	Whale.
1838,.....	132,356	226,552	1842,.....	166,637	164,041
1839,.....	142,336	229,783	1843,.....	161,985	206,727
1840,.....	157,791	207,908	1844,.....	130,524	262,047
1841,.....	159,304	207,348			

The average price of oil, during the year 1844, has been 90½ a 90¾ cents per gallon for sperm, and 36½ a 36¾ cents per gallon for whale oil. Average price of bone, 40 cents. 1845, January 1, prices:—Sperm, 88 cents; whale, 31 a 34 cents; whalebone, 38 a 40 cents. The quantity of crude sperm oil in the country, out of the hands of manufacturers, on the 1st of January, 1845, is estimated at 32,992 bbls.; and the amount of crude whale oil at 32,950 bbls. The number of vessels employed in the whale fishery, on the 1st of January, 1845, was 643 ships and barques, 35 brigs, 17 schooners and sloops—in all, 218,655 tons. In 1844, January 1, the number engaged were 595 ships and barques, 41 brigs, 9 schooners and sloops—tonnage, 200,147.

EXPORTS OF LAGUAYRA, FROM 1840 TO 1844.

Years.	Qtls. of Coffee.	Fanegas of Cocoa.	Qtls. of Indigo.	Hides.
1840,.....	112,119	31,952	1,377	30,457
1841,.....	128,569	28,474	1,425	31,484
1842,.....	118,624	48,035	412	36,458
1843,.....	144,019	23,078	930	30,526
1844,.....	126,759	36,291	667	39,428

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF MILAN, OHIO—1844.

TABLE OF THE ESTIMATED VALUE OF THE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE TOWN OF MILAN, OHIO, VIA MILAN CANAL, FOR THE YEAR 1844.

Exports.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Wheat,.....bush.	645,834	$516,607	Butter,.....kegs	1,498	$7,490
Flour,.....bbls.	10,591	42,364	Leather,.....lbs.	9,594	1,919
Pork,.....	7,196	64,568	Hides,.....	3,664	219
Pot and p'l ashes,.	2,650	53,000	Furniture,.....	3,816	200
Beef,.....	702	3,159	Rags,.....	3,696	147
Timothy-seed, ...	2,400	10,300	Hops,.....	3,883	388
Clover-seed,.....	961	12,915	Wool,.....	182,164	63,757
Flax-seed,.....	11	38	Sheep pelts,.....	5,400	1,720
Dried fruit,.....	105	420	Feathers,.....	400	120
Cranberries,.....	235	940	Beeswax,.....	1,866	410
High wines,.....	1,041	12,482	Staves,.....No.	1,078,497	21,570
Tallow,.....	57	684	Lumber,.....feet.	120,750	1,449
Sundries,.....	133	665	Live hogs,....No.	400	1,200
Lard,.....	408	4,080			
" .....kegs	432	1,728	Total,.....		$825,098

Imports.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise,. tons	1,952	$535,300	Pine lumber,....M.	146	$20,124
Salt,.....bbls.	19,356	22,765	Shingle bolts, cords	201½	1,612
Fish,.....	506	3,036	Shingles,... ....M.	425	850
Whiskey,.....	27	243	Stone coal,....tons	55	475
Plaster,.....	317	317	Potatoes,.....bush.	280	105
Linseed oil,.....	22	660			
Beer,.....	14	98	Total,.....		$634,711
Cedar posts,....No.	1,015	126			

COMMERCE OF SANDUSKY, OHIO—1844.

A correspondent has sent us the following official statement, made up by E. H. Haines, collector at the custom-house, Sandusky, Ohio, of the principal articles exported and imported during the year 1844:—

Exports.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Wheat,.....bush.	487,211	$380,023 38	Feathers,.....lbs.	6,200	$2,170 00
Corn,.....	2,010	844 20	Paper rags,.....	34,578	1,037 34
Pork,..... bbls.	9,888	69,216 00	Hides,.....No.	1,277	4,597 20
Beef,.....	1,307	5,228 00	Fur,.....packs	104	14,560 00
Flour,.....	36,277	154,177 25	Sheep pelts,..No.	5,657	4,212 75
Lard,.....	1,621	16,210 00	Live hogs,.....	1,274	3,822 00
" .....kegs	625	2,812 50	Leather,.....rolls	156	3,900 00
Butter,.....	788	3,940 00	Gr'd plaster,. tons	815	6,520 00
Tallow,.....bbls.	256	3,584 00	Crude "	520	2,340 00
Timothy-seed,....	3,179	14,305 50	Water lime,. bbls.	124	217 00
Clover-seed,.....	1,301	18,214 00	Cranberries,.....	501	1,503 00
Ashes,.....casks	2,222	44,440 00	Stone,.....cords	1,600	3,200 00
Ginseng,.....bbls.	97	1,940 00	Sundries,. barrels		
Fruit,.....	175	525 00	and boxes.....	450	2,500 00
Beeswax,.....	45	1,125 00			
Wool,.....lbs.	141,321	46,635 33	Total,.....		$813,830 25

Imports.

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Salt,.....bbls.	17,462	$19,644 75	Beer,.....bbls.	400	$2,800 00
Lumber,....M. ft.	1,043	10,430 00	Whiskey,.....	500	4,500 00
Shingles,.....	1,235	2,570 00	Stone coal,...tons	130	1,170 00
Shing. bolts, cords	122	915 00	Merchandise,....	....	.....
Fish,.....bbls.	450	2,700 00			

MASSACHUSETTS FISHERIES—1844.

It appears, by a statement of the collector at Plymouth, Massachusetts, that ninety vessels have been employed in that district, during the season of 1844, in this important branch of commerce, belonging to the following ports:—

	No. vessels.	Men employed.	Qtls. fish caught.
Plymouth,	55	460	40,800
Kingston,	17	440	12,850
Duxbury,	12	70	5,200
Scituate,	6	36	2,450
Total,	90	706	61,300

Fishing bounty paid on the above vessels, on 1st day of January—Plymouth, $15,000; Kingston, $5,000; Duxbury, $2,200; Scituate, $1,300. Total, $54,000. The oil and fish, when sold, will amount to about $150,000; which, added to $24,000 bounty, gives us the total proceeds, $174,000. This amount, divided between 700 men, and 90 vessels, gives to each but a small sum; and, were it not for the bounty paid by the government, the inducement to pursue the business would be very small. Of the 90 vessels engaged, not one has met with any accident, except, perhaps, the loss of a cable or anchor; although some of them have been employed the whole season, from February until December, and in a boisterous part of the ocean, subject to the severity of every storm, and all the perils of the great deep. Of the 706 men employed, not one has met with an accident worth mentioning, nor has one been sick scarcely a day. Such a result cannot fail to give a conclusive proof of the skill, energy, care, and, above all, the temperance of those engaged in this pursuit.

MUTUAL SAFETY INSURANCE COMPANY, NEW YORK.

It appears, from the last report, made agreeably to the requisitions of the charter, that there was received, for the year ending December 17th, 1844, as premiums on marine risks, $615,239; and on fire risks, $135,774. The amount of losses, during the same period, was—Marine, &c., 424,716; and on fire, $66,343. The nett profits of the company, for the last six years, was—

In 1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	Total, 6 yrs.,
$47,287	$90,757	$134,914	$99,031	$135,513	$159,680	$667,152

The nett profits of the company, to the amount of $571,434, are invested in New York state and city stocks, and in bonds and mortgages on real estate in the city of New York. The total assets of the company amount to $1,005,829.

COMMERCIAL NAVIES OF THE EUROPEAN STATES.

The following statement of the commercial navies of the European States, is derived from the Austrian Lloyd's Journal:—

States.	Ships.	Tonnage.	States.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Great Britain,	23,152	3,047,418	Denmark,	3,036	153,408
France,	13,845	589,517	Spain,	2,700	80,000
Russia,	242	50,706	Portugal,	798	80,525
Austria,	6,199	208,551	Sardinia,	3,502	167,360
Prussia,	835	222,094	Roman States,	830	38,000
Hanover,	545	56,682	Two Sicilies,	9,174	213,198
Mecklenburg,	327	46,260	Lucca,	180	20,000
Hamburg,	327	57,102	Tuscany,	774	25,512
Bremen,	215	63,052	Ionian islands,	2,183	48,662
Holland,	1,195	275,084	Greece,	3,069	137,558
Belgium,	269	27,416	Turkey,	2,220	182,000
Norway and Sweden,	5,450	471,772			

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

POSTAL TREATY OF BELGIUM AND ENGLAND.

The post-office treaty, between England and Belgium, was signed in London, on the 19th October, 1844. The ratifications were exchanged in London on the 19th November. We give below a summary of the more important articles of the treaty, and we would take this opportunity of calling the attention of our government to the importance of effecting a similar arrangement, particularly in regard to newspapers and periodicals. But a short time since, we received a letter from Baring & Brothers, complaining that the postage on a single copy of the Merchants' Magazine amounted to something over £1 sterling, and directing the work to be sent through their agents in this city. It is not surprising that, with such onerous duties in the shape of postage, the British nation should remain in comparative ignorance of the nature of our institutions, resources, &c. A free or cheap interchange of the periodical literature of the two countries, would do much towards diffusing among the people of a kindred origin and language, correct information and liberal views.

"The exchange of the international correspondence will take place at Dover and Ostend. The British post-office will continue to convey in its packets the despatches, four times a week, according to the terms of the treaty of October, 1834. The departures from Ostend to Dover will take place on Sundays, Monday, Wednesdays, and Thursdays; the departures from Dover, every Tuesday, Wednesday, Friday, and Saturday. However, the Belgian government will be at liberty to establish a service of packets to convey letters, despatches, and travellers, between both the ports above mentioned, twice a week, or daily; and the Belgian government reserves expressly to itself to enter into an agreement with the British government, in order to be freed from the obligation of paying that government the annual sum of £1,000 sterling, which was stipulated in the treaty of October, 1834. The packets employed by both governments to convey despatches between Dover and Ostend, to be received and considered in both ports as men-of-war, and to be free from all tonnage, harbor, and shipping duties. The above packets to be allowed to carry passengers, with their luggage, horses, and carriages, but they will not be permitted to take goods on freight. Persons sending letters either from Belgium to Great Britain, and British possessions, or from Great Britain and British possessions to Belgium, to be at liberty to send the same without paying the postage, or paying it in advance, if they think proper, however the postage be paid, for the whole distance. Letters charged may be sent between the two countries, and, as far as possible, in transit to every country of which both offices are intermediaries. Letters, paid or unpaid, to be charged with a postage duty of a shilling for every simple letter, this postage to be increased according to the weight of letters, on the scale established in both countries. Newspapers sent from Great Britain to persons living in Belgium, to be delivered free of postage to the Belgian office, and to be charged in Belgium with a postage of five centimes, (½d.) Belgian newspapers, directed to persons in England, to be delivered free of postage to the British post-office, and to pay in England only five centimes. The postage for periodicals, published in Belgium or in Great Britain, to be paid in advance, viz: in Belgium, five centimes for every printed sheet under 30 square decimetres; and in England one penny for every work under two ounces; six pence for every work above two ounces, and not exceeding three; eight pence for every work above three ounces, and not exceeding four; and for every ounce above four, and under sixteen, two pence more."

This treaty went into operation on the 1st of December, 1844.

MERCHANDISE IMPORTED PRIOR TO TARIFF OF 1842.

George M. Bibb, Secretary of the Treasury, has published the following circular to collectors and naval officers, under date of Department of the Treasury, Dec. 20, 1844:—

"Numerous applications having been made, and still being presented to this department, for the return of alleged excess of duties, paid on the importation of goods, wares, and merchandise, made at various periods prior to the passage of the tariff act now in

force, (in some cases the said duties having been paid under protest, and in others without such protest,) it is proper to inform you, and through you the applicants at your port, that the department, having taken into consideration this class of claims upon the treasury, with special reference to its powers and duties, under the laws, in directing the refunding of duties, has determined that its exercise of such authority must be restricted to those cases, only, where the importation has been, or shall be, made subsequently to the passage of the tariff act of 30th August, 1842, whether the alleged excess of duties has been paid under protest, or without such protest accompanying the payment."

NEW ORLEANS COTTON PRESS CHARGES.

The following rates of charges have been agreed upon for the cotton season of 1845:—

CHARGES TO FACTORS AND RECEIVERS.—Drayage, storage, and labor, piling up, and turning out for weighing, 27½ cents per bale for the first sixty days, and 10 cents per bale per month afterwards. All extra labor will be charged.

CHARGES TO SHIPPERS OF COMPRESSED COTTON.—Labor, in all cases, 5 cents per bale. If not ordered within fifteen days from the time it is received, 10 cents per bale per month storage will be charged additional. All necessary repairs will be charged. Drayage on ship-board, within the 1st and 2d Municipalities, 12½ cents per bale; within the limits of the 3d Municipality, 15 cents per bale.

CHARGES ON UNCOMPRESSED COTTON.—All cotton remaining over night only, or longer, will be charged 10 cents per bale per month, and all labor incurred.

All cotton changing ownership, or transferred from one party to another, will be charged new storage, and any labor which may be incurred.

All cotton hauled to the presses for compressing, will be charged the drayage to the press, in addition to that on ship-board.

All the foregoing charges will be considered cash, and collected at least once per month.

PORT OF SYDNEY, (N. S. W.,) RATES UPON VESSELS.

WATER POLICE—PILOTAGE—WATER—CUSTOMS DUES—LIGHT-HOUSE DUES—STEAMBOATS.

Water Police.

Coasters, 3d. per ton register, payable every 12 months. Every vessel registered at Sydney, and trading to Van Diemen's Land, 3d. per ton per annum. For every vessel trading to any other ports, 3d. per ton, every 4 months. For every stranger arriving in the port of Sydney, (whalers excepted,) 3d. per ton. All whalers, whether British, colonial, or foreign, wholly exempt.

Pilotage.

Coasting vessels, exempt. Vessels registered in Sydney, and trading to Van Diemen's Land, exempt. Vessels registered in Sydney, being under 50 tons, half pilotage. All other vessels, 10s. per foot, in and out.

Harbor Fees.

For every vessel trading to Van Diemen's Land, above 100 tons, 20s. For every removal, 10s. to 20s., according to tonnage. For every coaster of 50 tons, or upwards, 5s. Every coaster under 50 tons, exempt.

Water.

One shilling per tun.

Customs Dues.

Every vessel not registered in Sydney, entry and clearance, £1 10s. Vessels registered at Sydney, above 100 tons, coastwise, £1. All vessels not registered in Sydney are considered foreign, and pay the full dues and lights, whether under 50 tons or not, or whether coastwise or foreign. All vessels registered at Sydney above 50, and not exceeding 100 tons, coastwise, entry clearance, 8s. For all vessels not coastwise, entry and clearance, £1 10s.

Lighthouse Dues.

All vessels not registered in Sydney, 2d. per ton. Vessels registered in Sydney, under 50 tons, coastwise, exempted. Vessels registered in Sydney, above 50, and not exceeding 100 tons, coastwise, 2s. 100 tons, and upwards, coastwise or foreign, 2d. per ton, inward light.

Steamboats.

Customs dues, entry, and clearance, coastwise, 2s. 6d. Lighthouse dues, 4d. per ton. For every other port, same as other vessels.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCHANT'S REVENGE.

There is embodied in a little work, entitled "Illustrations of the Law of Kindness," by the Rev. G. W. Montgomery, more of the spirit and genius of Christianity, than in the ponderous tomes of many learned theologians, since the days of the Reformation. The perusal of this volume has almost, if not quite, convinced us "that there never yet was an instance in which kindness has been fairly exercised, but that it has subdued the enmity opposed to it." Among the many well authenticated anecdotes adduced in illustration of the law of kindness, or of "overcoming evil with good," nothing, we think, could more effectually enforce this doctrine, than the effect of such facts as the following, which we select on account of its bearing on mercantile life:—

"The brothers Cheeryble of the novelist are, as is well known, scarcely overcharged portraits of two real English merchants; one of whom, we regret to know, is now no more. Of these men, the following story was originally told in a Manchester paper:—The elder brother of this house of merchant princes amply revenged himself upon a libeller, who had made himself merry with the peculiarities of the amiable fraternity. This man published a pamphlet, in which one of the brothers (D.) was designated as 'Billy Button,' and represented as talking largely of their foreign trade, having travellers who regularly visited Chowbent, Bullock Smithy, and other foreign parts. Some 'kind friend' had told W. of this pamphlet, and W. had said that the man would live to repent of its publication. This saying was kindly conveyed to the libeller, who said that he should take care never to be in their debt. But the man in business does not always know who shall be his creditor. The author of the pamphlet became bankrupt, and the brothers held an acceptance of his which had been endorsed by the drawer, who had also become bankrupt. The wantonly-libelled men had thus become creditors of the libeller. They now had it in their power to make him repent of his audacity. He could not obtain his certificate without their signature, and without it he could not enter into business again. He had obtained the number of signatures required by the bankrupt laws, except one.

"It seemed folly to hope that the firm of brothers would supply the deficiency. What! they who had been cruelly made the laughing-stock of the public, forget the wrong, and favor the wrong-doer? He despaired; but the claims of a wife and children forced him at last to make the application. Humbled by misery, he presented himself at the counting-room of the wronged. W. was there alone, and his first words to the delinquent were, 'Shut the door, sir!' sternly uttered. The door was shut, and the libeller stood trembling before the libelled. He told his tale, and produced his certificate, which was instantly clutched by the injured merchant.

"'You wrote a pamphlet against us once!' exclaimed W. The supplicant expected to see his parchment thrown into the fire; but this was not its destination. W. took a pen, and writing something on the document, handed it back to the bankrupt. He, poor wretch, expected to see there, 'Rogue, scoundrel, libeller!' inscribed; but there was, in fair round characters, the signature of the firm! 'We make it a rule,' said W., 'never to refuse signing the certificate of an honest tradesman, and we have never heard that you were anything else.' The tear started into the poor man's eyes.

"'Ah!' said W., 'my saying was true. I said you would live to repent writing that pamphlet. I did not mean it as a threat; I only meant that some day you would know us better, and would repent you had tried to injure us. I see you repent of it now.' 'I do—I do;' said the grateful man. 'Well, well, my dear fellow,' said W., 'you know us now, How do you get on? What are you going to do?' The poor man stated that he had friends who could assist him when his certificate was obtained. 'But how are you off in the meantime?'—and the answer was, that, having given up everything to his creditors, he had been compelled to stint his family of even the common necessaries, that he might be enabled to pay the cost of his certificate. 'My dear fellow,' said W., 'this will never do; your family must not suffer. Be kind enough to take this ten pound note to your wife from me. There, there, my dear fellow—nay, don't cry—it will be all well with you yet. Keep up your spirits, set to work like a man, and you will raise your head yet.' The overpowered man endeavored in vain to express his thanks—the swelling in his throat forbade words; he put his handkerchief to his face, and went out of the door, crying like a child."

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BALTIMORE.

FIFTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

The President of this Institution has furnished us with a copy of this document, a pamphlet occupying twenty-eight pages. It represents the career of the association as one of striking and unexpected success; exhibiting, at this time, no sign "threatening weakness or retrogression" for the future. Through all changes and seasons it has, says the report, borne itself steadily, though unobtrusively, forward; and stands at this moment stronger in numbers, spirit, and resources, than at any former period of its existence. The position of the association may well be a source of honest pride to its active members. By their almost unaided exertions, they have called it into existence, and placed it at once in a respectable rank among the sister institutions of Baltimore, where they have beheld it yearly grow more efficient and influential. The number of volumes, as we learn from the report, at the close of last year, was 3,610. From these, deducting 94 volumes on deposit, and now returned to their respective owners, leaves in the library 3,816 volumes—there has been added, during the year, 877; making the present number 4,393 volumes. Of this number, 735 were purchased, 70 volumes were donations, and 72 volumes are pamphlets and periodicals, now first bound. Twenty-six periodicals are received at the rooms, of which 7 are quarterly, 11 monthly, 1 semi-monthly, and 7 weekly—92 honorary, and 320 active members, have used the library during the year, and drawn from it 7,800 volumes, a number greater than has ever been drawn in a like period. The present number of members is 361, being an increase, during the year, of 113. The number of honorary members at present attached to the association, is 113. There are two classes of honorary members, viz: merchants who subscribe and pay an annual subscription, but who have no control in the management of the society; and those who, for their services, are elected by the board. The following abstract of the treasurer's statement exhibits the finances of the association in a prosperous condition:—

Balance in the treasury at the beginning of the present year,.....		$351 22
Revenue of the present year, exclusive of the lectures,.....		1,706 62
Total,.....		$2,057 84
There has been expended for books, periodicals, &c.,.....	$854 14	
All other expenses, exclusive of lectures,.....	1,063 47	
		1,917 61
		$140 23
Add nett profits of fourth course of lectures,.....		56 87
Leaving a balance in the treasury of.....		$197 10

The nett profits of the fourth course of lectures is less by $300 than the proceeds of the course preceding, though the expenses of the season were somewhat less than heretofore. This decrease has of course been occasioned by a falling off in the amount received for the sale of tickets.

The sums thus received by the association during its four courses of lectures, have been as follows:—Gross receipts of the first course, $1,600; of the second, $1,760; of the third, $1,500; of the fourth, $1,100.

The report is creditable to the taste and judgment of Mr. Bradenbaugh, the president; and we commend the closing paragraph, which we give below, to all interested in the progress of similar associations:—

"In the past, we have done well; in the future, we can do better. Hold unshaken the faith that believes all things possible. Keep bright the hope which only the highest success can satisfy. Draw close the bond of fellowship which unites us in one body, with many hands to labor, and a single purpose to guide. Our main reliance must be upon ourselves. Let each realize for himself that he is in part chargeable with the task of

maintaining the efficiency of the whole organization; that he cannot cease to perform his share without impairing the strength and usefulness of the entire machine, and that he owes to the institution the benefit both of his labor and of his example. We do not discharge the duty that rests upon us by merely using the appliances which we have collected about us as means of our own mental advancement. We are the trustees of the coming time, bound to transmit, stronger and more prosperous, to those who shall succeed us, the charge we have received from those who have gone before. We are among the humbler pioneers of a great moral movement, responsible at home and abroad, that no discouragement shall fall upon the cause or its champions, through any remissness of ours. We are among the supports upon which rests the character of our city for intelligence and culture. Let this suffice. Let us show that we appreciate the dignity of our position by a united, vigorous, and persevering effort to place abreast of the foremost in the career of usefulness, the Mercantile Library Association of Baltimore."

At an election, held on Saturday, 16th November, 1844, the following gentlemen were duly elected officers of the Mercantile Library Association, for the year ensuing, from that date:—Charles Bradenbaugh, President; John Cumming Brown, Vice-President; Ballard Johnson, Corresponding Secretary; John S. Harden, Recording Secretary; Robert H. Lowry, Treasurer; Otto Frank, C. W. Anderson, Allston Allen, Samuel Howard, jr., George W. Grafflin, J. Francis Hiss, James Carey Coale, Directors.

CATALOGUE OF THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, IN N. Y.

"The true university, in these days, is a collection of books."—*Carlyle.*

Our friends of the Mercantile Library Association of New York have just published a very complete, well arranged catalogue of their library, in a neat octavo, of three hundred pages. The progress of this institution since its first formation in 1820, a quarter of a century ago, has been all that its most prophetic friends could anticipate or expect. The library was at a room in Fulton-street, in February, 1821, and at that time contained 700 volumes. Having increased to 3,300, it was removed in 1826 to a larger room in Cliff-street. In February, 1828, the prominent merchants of New York, interested in the success of the institution, raised a subscription, and erected the building called Clinton Hall, on the corner of Beekman and Nassau-streets. The society took possession of the rooms in that building, provided for their use by the Clinton Hall Association, in November, 1830, at which time the library contained 6,000 volumes. Since then, it has steadily increased, and now numbers more than 21,000 volumes. The merchants of New York may well be proud of an institution created by their own hands, affording, as it does, unrivalled advantages for their social, moral, and intellectual culture.

COMMERCE OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

There has been lately published in the "Friend" a somewhat elaborate table of statistics, appertaining to this port, from which we condense the following items:—The official value of the yearly consumption of goods is given at $171,565, paying to government in duties $5,270 34. Nett revenue of the kingdom in 1843, $50,000. Expenditures, $45,000. Public debt, $30,000. Amount of money in circulation at Honolulu, $50,000. Amount of bills negotiated for supplies to whalers and men-of-war, variously estimated from $137,000 to $200,000. Rate of exchange on Europe and America, from 15 to 20 per cent. Product of sugar, about 600 tons; of molasses, 80,000 gallons; of paint oil, 10,000 gallons. From a meteorological table, kept in 1838, the maximum of Fahrenheit's thermometer was 86 degrees; minimum, 62 degrees; yearly mean, 76 degrees, 3 minutes. The total number of arrivals of whaling ships and merchant vessels, during the last twenty years, (1843, inclusive,) was 2,213. Total of ships of war, 49.

COMMERCE OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

The most interesting article in the Paris Journals, of a mercantile character, is one in the DEBATS, on the Commerce of France and England. We give it entire, leaving the reader to draw his own conclusions. It is as follows:—

"We have already noticed the progress of the commerce of France, in 1843. A parliamentary document enables us to show the principal results of the commerce of England in the same year. Hence arises some comparisons, which will not be found to be without interest, particularly as regards the manufactures of the two countries. In every branch of British commerce, there appears to have been an increase. We say *appears*, because the English table does not state the amounts in value, except of such British produce as was exported—a commercial division truly important, since it represents about one-third of all the commerce of the United Kingdom. The following is the progress it has made, from 1841 to 1843:—The exports of the produce of English manufacture, in 1841, was 1,289,000,000 fr.; in 1842, they fell to 1,174,000,000 fr.; thus losing 115,000,000 fr. In 1843, they rose again to 1,300,000,000 fr.; that is to say, 126,000,000 fr. more than in 1842, and a little above the amount of 1841. This is nearly, as we have already stated, what has been the case with us, in these three years, in the *ensemble* of our commercial affairs. If we compare the exports of France (*commerce speciale*) to those of England, it will be found that the first represent, in fact, very little more than one-half (687,000,000 francs) of the second. The superiority is certainly great in favor of England; and the extent of the commerce of that country, no more than the economical considerations which create an imperious necessity for it to maint in this expansion of its markets, have no need to be demonstrated or commented upon here. On her external commerce, depends the wealth, the influence, and the grandeur of England. Let us consider, only, whether the relation we have pointed out between the affairs of the two countries has constantly been the same, and whether both have walked with equal steps in the paths which lead to supplying foreign markets. From 1837 to 1839, inclusively, the average annual amount of British exports rose to 1 milliard, 170 millions. During the same time, our exports rose to an average of 615 millions. Comparing these two periods with what has been stated for 1843, (1 milliard, 300 millions, and 687 millions,) we shall find the same improvement for both countries of about 11 per cent. Relatively, therefore, during these seven years, we neither lost nor gained, but perhaps it would be more correct to say that we lost. It is important, now, for us to regain from England a portion of the ground on which she has surpassed us. If this is not the case for the ensemble, it is not satisfactory to acknowledge that, in the most considerable branch of manufacture, that of tissues, our progress has been more rapid than that of England. This assertion may at first create surprise, but it rests on positive and official facts. In 1837, 1838, and 1839, England exported, on an annual average, for a value of 645 millions of cotton, linen, woollen, and silk goods. Our sales of those manufactures averaged only 273 millions. In 1843, the sales for England amounted to 465 millions, and for France to 315, being an average of 15 per cent upon our side, and only 3 per cent on that of Great Britain. This, we think, is a decided proof of improvement. All the branches of manufactures, however, are far from having experienced the same rate of progress. It is due almost entirely to the spirit of enterprise in woollen manufactures, which, on the contrary, have made but little progress in England. We may say the same of silk goods, but not of cotton and linen goods, the supply of which England may be said to have monopolized in all the nations of the globe. The exports of English cotton goods, in 1843, amounted in value to 406 millions of francs; in weight, to 80 millions of kilogrammes; and on a quantity, to 820,000 kilometres, or 205,000 leagues, being nearly twenty-three times the circumference of our globe. Next to these goods, iron was the most important article of the English exports. England sold iron to the commercial world for the amount of 64 millions, being only three millions more than in 1842; whereas, considering the enormous reduction in the price of this article, the increase ought to have been much more considerable. With the markets which Great Britain has created in India and China, we may conjecture her manufactures will receive a new impetus, and that she is really little alarmed at the gloomy predictions which have been made by some persons as to the future fate of British products. Our own products are extending, as we have shown, not only as regards foreign markets, but in our vast national market, where the increase of wealth has given a new impulse for the importation of merchandise and articles of consumption. Thus, whilst in England the quantity of foreign wool manufactured has remained for ten years, nearly, at 20 millions of kilogrammes per year, it has risen in France, in the same period, from 12 to 20 millions. Something analogous has taken place in cottons, our consumption of which has risen from 40 to 60 millions of kilogrammes, whilst it has risen

in England in the proportion only of from 190 to 210. This double source of trade, a vast and rich home market, and an increase in the exports, constitute for our country an excellent state of things, which will infallibly be improved by the habits of well regulated and judicious industry, and the spirit of perseverance in our enterprises. These form, in a great measure, the secret of the commercial greatness of England."

PRODUCE OF THE RUSSIAN AND OTHER GOLD MINES.

Exclusive of the late gradual increase in the produce of the South American and Mexican mines, there has been an unprecedented increase in the produce of the Russian mines and washings, particularly the latter. This is evident from the following account of the produce in gold of the washings of Siberia, carried on upon account of the crown and of individuals, from 1830 to 1842, both inclusive:—

Years.	Pds.	Liv.	Zol.	Years.	Pds.	Liv.	Zol.
1830,.....	5	32	59½	1838,.....	193	6	47½
1831,.....	10	18	35½	1839,.....	183	8	16½
1832,.....	21	34	68½	1840,.....	255	27	26½
1833,.....	36	32	53½	1841,.....	358	33	14½
1834,.....	65	18	90½	1842,.....	631	5	21½
1835,.....	93	12	46½				
1836,.....	105	9	41	Total,....	2,093	38	46
1837,.....	132	39	5½				

But, in addition to the above quantity of 631 poods, obtained from washings in Siberia in 1842, the silver obtained from the mines of Kolyvan yielded, in the course of the same year, 30 poods of gold; while the washings and mines of the Oural mountains yielded no fewer than 310 poods; making the total produce 971 poods, equal to 30,030 lbs. avoirdupois, or 42,571 lbs. troy; which, at 46*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* per pound, is equivalent to 1,989,128*l.* 11*s.* (*Supplement au Journal de l'Interieur*, for 1842, p. 16.)

It is necessary, however, to bear in mind that the Russian government imposes a duty, varying, according to circumstances, from 20 to 25 per cent, on the produce of the mines and washings; and there can be no doubt that the temptation to avoid so heavy a duty, and the peculation on the part of the agents for the crown, must give rise to a great deal of smuggling. Perhaps, under such circumstances, we should not be far wrong if we estimated the metal of which no account is taken, at a fourth part of the above; but, taking it only at a fifth part, we have a sum of no less than 2,386,000*l.* for the produce of the Russian gold mines and washings, in 1842.

It may be supposed, perhaps, that it would be wrong to take the produce of the Russian washings and mines, in 1842, as a fair criterion of their future produce, seeing that the produce of the washings in that year was not far from being twice as great as it had been in any previous year. But it is to be observed that the produce in question has been progressively and rapidly augmenting during the thirteen years ending with 1842; and it is stated in the official journal whence we have borrowed those details, that *selon toute probabilite, et a moins qu'on ne manque d'ouvriers, le chiffre de l'annee* 1843, *offrira de nouveau sur celui de l'annee derniere un excedant tres considerable.*—[We have since learned that the produce of the Russian gold mines and washings, in 1843, amounted to no less than 1,342 poods; being equivalent, adding one-fifth for the quantity not brought to account, to 3,298,962*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.* sterling—an increase which is altogether extraordinary, and will have the most powerful influence.]

In addition to this vast quantity of gold, Russia produces a quantity of silver, which may, perhaps, be estimated, at an average, at about 1,300 poods a year; worth, at 5*s.* 2*d.* an ounce, 193,440*l.* We have seen no very recent accounts of the produce of the Saxon, Hungarian, and other European mines, on which it would be at all safe to place much reliance. We incline, however, to think that their produce may be safely estimated at

about 750,000*l.* a year. Hence, supposing we are nearly right in these estimates, the total available produce of the American, European, and Russian Asiatic mines, will be—South American and Mexican, 5,600,000*l.*; United States, 100,000*l.*; European, 750,000*l.*; and Russo-Asiatic, 2,600,000*l.*; making, in all, 9,050,000*l.* And, therefore, should these estimates be not very wide of the mark, it may be concluded, in opposition to the commonly received opinions on this subject, that the supply of the precious metals is at present but little inferior to what it amounted to when the American mines were most productive.

POETRY OF THE WHALE FISHERY.

In the ports upon our coast engaged in that important branch of American commercial enterprise, the whale fishery, the arrival of a ship from its long voyage to the South Atlantic or Pacific oceans, is an exciting event, that often gives rise to scenes of thrilling interest. Sometimes, a ship that has not been heard from for several months, makes its appearance; and of course the anxiety of those interested is intense, to ascertain her success, and if all her crew have returned in safety.

THE RETURN OF THE SHIPS.

BY MISS F. M. CAULKINS, NEW LONDON.

The Spring, the quickening Spring's sweet voice,
  Runs whispering o'er the ground;
Streams gushing from their chains rejoice,
  Young buds breathe sweetness round.
Why pace those groups the sunny shore?
Why climb yon hill-top o'er and o'er?
What wanderers on the dark blue main,
Will Spring's soft breath bring back again?

They linger on the beach—they gaze,
  And sigh, as at their feet
The breaking billow moans and plays,
  Half sorrowful, half sweet.
A speck appears—"A sail! a sail!
Swelling before the landward gale!
She's large—how high that mast ascends!
A ship! a ship!—our friends! our friends!"

Strain every eye; look long, look far—
  She comes, deep laden—low;
The first full ship—the morning-star—
  Why move her wings so slow?
Hearts rise, hearts sink—'tis hope, 'tis fear;
The joyous shout, the trembling tear.
What hath time done, on sea or shore?
Will all that parted meet once more?

Her cannon speaks, her streamers swell,
  Abroad her signals fly;
All's well!—she's standing in! *All's well!*
  A hundred voices cry.
How bold, how giant-like her state!
That deep-sunk keel bears costly freight—
Those thunders quick and loud declare
Success and health are regent there.

They land, and meet the long-worn clasp
  Of friendship's welcome hand;
The loud acclaim, the hearty grasp,
  Of hundreds on the strand;
The bursting questions and replies,
Half said, half answered; tears and cries;
The rush for home, the long embrace—
O who such glowing scenes can trace?

Another sail!—no cannon roars,
No pendants strike the air;
How hushed, how sad she nears the shore!
Death's angel has been there.
Boats float around—no shouts are heard,
No echoes with rejoicing stirred.
That low flag casts a gloomy shade
O'er decks where death his pall hath laid.

A mother watched the treacherous main
Long for that ship's return;
A maiden's heart is rent in twain,
The dismal truth to learn;
Oft on the star-light beach she strayed,
And for the wandering seaman prayed;
Or chid the winds and waves that brought
No tidings of the friends she sought.

Vain was the maid's or mother's tear—
His lot was bold and brief;
His comrades land, and give no cheer,
For they have lost their chief
Thus sounds of mirth, and sounds of wo,
From heart to heart together flow;
And boundless joy and anguish stern
Are mingled when the ships return.

Yet still to *Thee* our souls we raise,
O Lord of land and sea!
In bliss o· wo, the wings of praise
Shall still mount up to thee.
The wife's glad smile, the mother's tear,
The funeral wail, the welcome cheer,
All rising from the heart's bright urn,
Shall praise Thee for the ship's return.

COMMERCE AT HONG-KONG, CHINA.

We find, in Captain Cunyghame's Recollections of Service, as published in the London Spectator, the following passage, touching commerce at Hong-Kong:—

"The harbor of Hong-Kong was generally very crowded with Chinese native craft. The gayest and most highly decorated boats which arrived at our port, were those which brought from Canton a mercantile commodity very commonly trafficked in by the Chinese. These were young ladies, who were bent upon the speculation of marriage; being brought from the exuberant population of the interior towns, to supply this deficiency among the numerous settlers who had come from the continent to our new colony, so many of every trade and occupation having already flocked in vast numbers to the island. These boats arrived with drums and gongs beating, and colors flying, generally coming to an anchor immediately under my own window. Tea-tables were soon arranged; and the young ladies, from twenty to forty in number, arrayed in their smartest jackets and trowsers, might be seen endeavoring to bewitch those visiters who flocked to the boats. I was informed that the price, generally speaking, averaged from one hundred to two hundred dollars, the greater portion of which money was transferred to the mother of the young lady; a due proportion, however, being charged for the expenses attendant upon the voyage, together with commission, &c., upon the bargain. I have known instances of some of the natives of India becoming purchasers; but, in that case, they would obtain solely the refuse of the community. Upon one occasion, a hitmutgar, or table-servant, a native of Bengal, complained to me, and entreated my interference; stating that he had entrusted a friend of his own, who had gone to Macao, with one hundred dollars, all his savings, for the purpose of buying him a nice comely wife; but when she arrived, she by no means answered the description given of her, being too short and too old, and by no means a hundred dollar wife, but not more than a thirty dollar one; when, much to his grief, as well as surprise, he only got laughed at by me for his pains."

EARLY HISTORY OF SILK.

Looking over a file of papers, published in 1802, we find an extract from Alexander's "History of Women," touching the early history of silk. It is there stated that, "in the year 555, two monks brought from Cerinda, in the East Indies, to Constantinople, the eggs of some silk-worms; which, having hatched in a dunghill, they fed the young insects with mulberry leaves, and by this management they soon multiplied to such a degree, that manufactures of silk were erected at Constantinople, at Athens, at Thebes, and at Corinth. In the year 1130, Roger, king of Sicily, brought manufacturers of silk from Greece, and settled them at Palermo, where they taught the Sicilians the art of breeding the silk-worms, and of spinning and weaving the silk. From Sicily, the art was carried over all Italy; from thence to Spain, and from thence to the south of France. In the year 1286, the ladies of some noblemen first appeared in silk mantles, at a splendid ball in England. In the year 1620, the art of weaving silk was first introduced into England; and in the year 1719, Lombe's machine, for throwing silk, was erected at Derby. This wonderful piece of mechanism contains 26,586 wheels, the whole of which receive their motion from one wheel that is turned by water. Sometime in the sixteenth century, Edward the Sixth was presented with a pair of silk stockings, which was the first pair that was ever seen in England."

BRIEF HISTORY OF WOOL.

The history of the growth of wool is very curious. Fifty years ago, not a pound of fine wool was raised in the United States, in Great Britain, or in any other country, except Spain. In the latter country, the flocks were owned exclusively by the nobility, or by the crown. In 1794, a small flock was sent to the Elector of Saxony, as a present from the king of Spain—whence the entire product of Saxony wool, now of such immense value. Before the breaking out of the last war between this country and Great Britain, Colonel Humphreys succeeded in getting a few Merino sheep brought out of Spain, though their exportation was prohibited under penalty of being sent to the galleys for life. In 1809, during the second invasion of Spain by the French, some of the valuable crown flocks were sold to raise money. Our consul at Lisbon, Mr. Jarvis, purchased fourteen hundred head, and sent them to this country. Previously, however, Mr. Livingston obtained a few sheep of the Spanish breed as a present, in 1792. A portion of the pure unmixed Merino blood, from these flocks, is to be found in Vermont at this time. Such was the origin of the immense flocks to be found in the United States and Great Britain.

COMMERCIAL PIETY AND PROFIT.

There is an unapproachable perfection of cant in the annexed advertisement, which we take from a Manchester (Eng.) paper:—

TO DRAPERS, HABERDASHERS, WAREHOUSEMEN, ETC.

Wanted, towards the latter end of April, by an eminently pious young man of Scotland, who has been regularly bred to the above branches, and considerably experienced generally, a situation as assistant clerk, manager, salesman, or traveller. The advertiser is twenty-one years of age, possessed of excellent health, an amiable disposition, good ability, extensive knowledge of the great scriptural doctrine, strictly evangelical, and would be found to be of immense advantage in assisting to advance the claims and reign of the Messiah's kingdom, amidst all the civil and ecclesiastical opposition so prevalent amongst the nations of the earth, in these latter agitating times. Testimonials and references to several eminent evangelical ministers and members of the Gospel, as well as to former and present employers, of the most strict and satisfactory tendency as to character and ability, with portrait, may be had on application. No objections to town or country, and would be willing to conform to the rules of a liberal church or dissenting family, holding evangelical principles, and make himself generally useful. A house favorable to Evangelical, Presbyterian, or Independent Church principles, affording permanent employment, and progressive advancement of salary, preferred.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold, D. D., late Master of Rigby School, and Regus Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford.* By ARTHUR P. STANLEY, M. A., Fellow and Tutor of University College, Oxford. First American, from the third English edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The favorable notices of this work which met our eye, in the leading reviews and literary journals of England—and, more than all, the occasional extracts that had been published, convinced us that it was one well worth reproducing in this country; and we were not surprised when we saw the announcement of the Appletons that it was in press. It is, in every respect, an excellent book, developing the resources of a deep and honest thinker, and an eminently pure and good man. The correspondence, selected by the editor from a mass of letters, preserved in almost unbroken series, from first to last, is perhaps the most interesting portion of the work. The editor, too, has wisely avoided giving any formal account of the general character of Dr. Arnold. That may be gathered from every page, which, in an eminent degree, mirrors forth the peculiar and striking characteristics of his mind. It is a work that may be read by men of all sects in religion, and all schools of philosophy—all who delight to study the life of a being who possessed intellectual, moral, and spiritual traits of character, truly remarkable. The two large octavo volumes of the English edition are here compressed, without abridgement, into one handsome duodecimo volume, of five hundred pages.

2.—*Goldsmith's Gems of Penmanship, containing various Examples of the Caligraphic Art, embracing the Author's System of Mercantile Penmanship, in Ten Lessons, of One Hour each, with ample Instructions.* By OLIVER B. GOLDSMITH, Professor of Penmanship. New York: Published by the Author.

This splendid volume furnishes some of the most beautiful and perfect specimens of penmanship that have ever fallen under our observation. They combine an artist-like ease, grace, and elegance, that we are quite sure has never been surpassed. The commercial difficulties of 1836–7, that blasted the prospects of so many of the most enterprising and worthy persons engaged in mercantile pursuits, and among that number the author of these "Gems of Penmanship," if not so agreeable to the sufferer at the time, has certainly resulted in a public benefit; as it has been instrumental in furnishing the country with one of the ablest teachers of penmanship it has ever produced. The rules of Mr. Goldsmith are few and simple, but all that seem requisite in a work that embraces such perfect and copious examples. The lecture of Mr. Goldsmith on the "Pen," delivered at Clinton Hall, before the Mercantile Library Association, is published at the close of the volume, and affords conclusive evidence of the *inspiration* of the *pen* that is "so moved by a master." Endicott, the lithographer, has done justice to the penmanship, by his admirably exact transfers to the stone.

3.—*St. Ignatius and his First Companions.* By CHARLES CONSTANTINE PISE, author of the "History of the Church," "Father Rowland," "Aletheia," etc. New York: Edward Dunigan.

This volume embraces the lives of St. Ignatius, and Peter Faber, St. Francis Xavier, Claudius Jaius, John Cardurius, Laynez, Salmeron, Bobadilla, Rodriguez, Cordurius, and Broetus, the nine first companions of the founder of the "Society of Jesus." The lives of the four who preceded Ignatius to the tomb, are given to their conclusion. "Of the others," says Dr. Pise, "my purpose was to treat only down to the period when their holy founder was taken from them; in which space, however, all the important actions of the society are comprised." To confute the calumny that Ignatius was a fanatic, and that his first disciples were intriguers and imposters, appear to be leading objects with the author. The work bears the impress of the accomplished scholar, and the earnest and eloquent advocate of ancient Catholicism. It is, moreover, a beautifully printed volume.

4.—*The United States Almanac, or Complete Ephemeris for* 1845, *etc., etc.* By JOHN DOWNES. Also, numerous Statistics. By JOHN P. MONTGOMERY, Esq., Member of the Philadelphia Bar. Philadelphia: B. Walker. New York: C. J. Gillis.

The astronomical portion of this work is unexceptionable; and the tables it contains, in most frequent use among astronomers, navigators, engineers, and others, will be found at once accurate and valuable. In this respect, it is surpassed by no similar work, at home or abroad. We regret that a proper regard for truth, impels us to say, that the statistical department, about which there is a liberal share of assumption in Mr. Montgomery's preface, is meagre and unsatisfactory. There is not a single originally compiled table in the volume; and "the requisite condensation which," he says, "has been made of the Treasury Report on Commerce and Navigation," consists simply in cutting from that document a few of the tables, and transferring them to the pages of this almanac; to say nothing of the statistics of the two former volumes, which have been retained. A work of this kind should furnish a complete chain of statistics, without encumbering that department with the repetitions of former years, so that each volume of the series will possess a standard value.

5.—*Mirror Library.* Edited by N. P. WILLIS and G. P. MORRIS. 8vo., pp. 1,000. New York: Office of the Evening Mirror.

This large and splendid volume contains, between its richly gilded covers, more poetry, inspiration, genius, sentiment, elegance, taste, and whatever else is good, beautiful, and true, than all the annuals ever published. If we had but five dollars to appropriate for books, it should be invested in this noble volume, which is indeed a "Library" in itself, of choice literature, well worth, and would have cost a few years ago, ten times that sum. Aside from its intrinsic excellence, we value it (as the many admirers of Willis will) all the more, as a mirror, reflecting the genius, taste, and heart of our esteemed friend; containing, as it does, the choicest gems of his favorite authors, as well as his own graceful and graphic sketches, and the inspiration of his purest thoughts and highest moments.

6.—*The Apprentices. A Tale for Youth.* By MARY HOWITT, author of "Strive and Thrive," "Sowing and Reaping," "Work and Wages," etc., etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Mary Howitt's domestic tales possess all the requisites of excellence. Her likenesses of persons, and descriptions of social and domestic life in England, appear exceedingly natural and graphic. The truthfulness of her portraits of men, women, and children, with their virtues and vices, their faults and their foibles, render her writings a mirror to the reader, that, duly regarded, cannot fail of exerting a benign and healthful influence on their morals and manners. The tales of Mrs. Howitt are alike instructive to children and parents. There are none that we read with more pleasure, and we trust with more benefit, to ourselves.

7.—*Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation.* New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The present treatise exhibits a variety of the circumstances, facts, and phenomena of the natural creation, in a manner that cannot fail of arresting the attention not only of the student of the natural sciences, but of the general reader, who is disposed to look through nature up to its great first cause. The volume treats of the commencement of organic life, of the constituent materials and formation of the earth, origin of animated tribes, and indeed of all animate and inanimate creation. It is, in short, an attempt to connect the natural sciences into a history of nature. How far the author has succeeded in this, it belongs to others more erudite than ourself to examine, judge, and decide.

8.—*Turns of Fortune, and other Tales.* By Mrs. S. C. HALL. New York: C. S. Francis.

Here are three pleasant and profitable tales, imparting useful lessons in social life, well worth acquiring by children of every growth.

9.—*Notes, Critical, Illustrative, and Practical, of the Book of Job; with a new Translation, and an Introductory Dissertation.* By ALBERT BARNES. 2 vols., 12mo. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.

We have in this country several able and learned expounders of the sacred volume, who, during the last ten years, have contributed largely to our stock of scriptural interpretation. The labors of Bush, Barnes, Noyes, Livermore, and others, in this ample field, are known and appreciated abroad. Indeed, it has been admitted, by one at least of the leading reviews of England, that, in this respect, our divines of the present century were in advance of their own. The volumes before us evince a deep and thorough knowledge of all the means and sources of criticism, and clearly exhibit Dr. Barnes in the light of a patient, laborious, and erudite student in biblical literature; and cannot fail of adding new lustre to his former well-earned fame.

10.—*Essays on the Nature and Principles of Taste.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON, L. L. D., F. R. S., Prebendary of Sarum, &c. With Corrections and Improvements. By ABRAHAM MILLS, A. M., Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. New York: Harpers.

Notwithstanding the peculiar delicacy and beauty which everywhere pervade the author's thoughts, previous editions of these essays contain "many inaccuracies, that greatly interrupts the pleasure which the student of taste would otherwise enjoy, while studying the work." These inconveniences, either expressed or implied, Mr. Mills informs us he has attempted to remove; not, however, interfering with the author's own opinions. The success of two similar efforts of Professor Mills, as well as the high reputation he enjoys, impels us to believe that he has succeeded, in the present instance, in effecting that object.

11.—*Miles Klem's Journey Under Ground, being a Narrative of his Wonderful Descent to the Subterranean Lands, together with an account of the Sensible Animals and Trees inhabiting the Planet Nazar, and the Firmament.* By LOUIS HOLBERG. Translated from the Danish. By JOHN GURLON. With a Sketch of the Author's Life. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co, New York: Saxton & Miles.

The author of this curious work, it is said, was the most eminent writer among the Danes in the eighteenth century. His works show a surprising versatility of genius, comprising histories, and a treatise on jurisprudence, together with satires and comedies. The present narrative, though written so many years ago, contains many satirical hits applicable to the present time; thus showing that what appears to one age to be a whim altogether new, may be, in fact, only some old notion newly promulgated. It has a number of very singular engravings, illustrative of things "under the ground."

12.—*Rouff's Repertory of Homœpathic Medicine, Nosologically arranged.* Translated from the German, by A. HOWARD OKIE, M. D. With Additions and Improvements. By GIDEON HUMPHREY, M. D. New York: William Radde.

This is the second American edition of this treatise, which has been, we are told, carefully amended and revised, with additions. The object of the work is to concentrate the practical results of homœpathic medicine, in a manner so plain and precise, that every intelligent observer of morbid phenomena, whether within the pale of the medical profession, or out of it, may readily avail himself of the experience of the most distinguished practitioners of this system. The matter is drawn from the results of experience—"all guess-work and hypothesis, which have so long occupied the place of rational induction in the practice of medicine, find no support here."

13.—*The Convent-Bell, and other Poems.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor.

This handsomely printed volume contains, besides the "Convent-Bell," occupying seventy-eight pages, two other poems—"Izram, a Mexican Tale," and "Osrie, a Missionary Tale," of equal length, besides the "Garden," and a few fugitive pieces; and forms, we believe, the entire poetical writings of Charlotte Elizabeth. The tales are deeply imbued with the religious sentiment, and exhibit considerable power of versification, and an earnest but graceful diction.

14.—*Letters on Homiletic Preaching, and on Public Prayer; together with Sermons and Letters.* By EBENEZER PORTER, D. D., President of the Theological Seminary, Andover. New York: Ezra Collier.

Dr. Porter is a learned theologian and critical scholar, and the author of a number of very popular school books. The present work is designed for the benefit of the student in divinity; and, so far as we are capable of judging, is well adapted to that object. It exhibits the prominent characteristics of the author's style, who regards this species of didactic composition as allowing very little scope to the imagination, and requiring that the diction should possess purity, simplicity, and precision, as its prominent features.

15.—*A Treatise on Pathological Anatomy.* By CARL ROKITANSKY, M. D., Professor Extraordinary of Pathological Anatomy at the University of Vienna. Translated from the German, with Additions in Diagnosis from Schoenbein, Skoda, and others. By Dr. JOHN C. PETERS. New York: William Radde.

The British and Foreign Quarterly Review says that no modern volume on morbid anatomy contains half so many genuine facts as Rokitansky's, and that it is alone sufficient to place its author in the highest rank of medical observers. The present volume, complete in itself, is devoted to the abnormal conditions of the organs of respiration. A second volume, by the same author, has been translated, "but will not be forthcoming unless the sale of the first warrants it."

16.—*The Boston Almanac, for the year* 1845. By S. N. DICKINSON. Boston: T. Groom.

This is the tenth annual volume of what we consider a model almanac. In typography and arrangement, it is a perfect specimen of neatness and taste; and it contains, for its size and price, a vast amount of matter—almost everything that can be useful to the citizen or stranger, and will be found particularly valuable to the merchant and business man, in or out of Boston, as a commercial guide.

17.—*Married and Single; or, Marriage and Celibacy Contrasted, in a series of Domestic Pictures.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

18.—*Lovers and Husbands; a Story of Married Life.* By T. S. ARTHUR, author of "Sweethearts and Wives," "Insubordination," "Six Nights with the Washingtonians."

Two excellent fireside tales, addressed to the understanding and the heart: They have the commendation of an intelligent and pure-minded woman, possessed of all the virtues and graces they so agreeably inculcate.

19.—*The Officer's Manual. Napoleon's Maxims of War.* Translated from the French. By Colonel D'AGUILAR, Deputy Adjutant-General to the Troops serving in Ireland. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This little volume has the endorsement of General Winfield Scott, as containing a circle of maxims deduced from the highest sources of military science and experience, and as embracing practical illustrations of the principles, taken from the most celebrated campaigns of modern times. The study of the book will, no doubt, set young officers in a course of inquiry and reflection to these improvements in the arts of war; but we trust the hour is not distant when maxims of "peace, and good will to man," will take the place of those laid down in the present volume.

20.—*The Scout; or, The Fast of St. Nicholas. A Tale of the Seventeenth Century.* By the author of "The Eagle of the Mohawks." New York: C. L. Stickney.

This story may be regarded as a sequel to the Eagle of the Mohawks, from the pen of the late Dr. J. L. E. W. Shecut. It takes up the thread of history where that story leaves it, and brings it down to the succeeding generation. The readers of the former well-told tale will find this equally, if not more interesting.

21.—*Sorrowing, yet Rejoicing; or, A Narrative of Recent Successive Bereavements in a Minister's Family.* New York: Robert Carter.

The domestic afflictions described in this pathetic narrative, will excite the sympathy of all readers; while the examples of resignation exhibited, strengthen our hopes of humanity, and its high destiny.

22.—*The Eockite. An Irish Story.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

A thrilling narrative, designed to exhibit what the author calls the Christianity of the Roman Catholic Church, which she most ardently detests. It will be read with interest by her numerous admirers; but we think a more loving spirit displayed in tales of this description would be more effectual in combating error, in whatever form it may appear.

23.—*The Juvenile Library, a Collection of Moral Tales and Sketches. Vol. 2.* Principally from the pen of Mrs. CAROLINE M. SAWYER. New York: C. L. Stickney.

Whether in prose or verse, a poem or a parable, a story or a descriptive sketch, (and the volume contains every variety of composition,) the purest moral and social sentiments are inculcated, in the most attractive form. We notice in the volume several translations from the juvenile literature of the Germans.

24.—*Memoir of Mrs. Mary Lundie Duncan; being Recollections of a Daughter.* By her Mother. New York: Robert Carter.

This little volume exhibits the religious life and progress of an eminently pious woman, from the days of childhood, through all the vicissitudes of a life of joy and of sorrow, till relieved from the last by the fruition of the former. It embraces numerous extracts from her diary, epistolary correspondence, and a few short poems.

25.—*Introduction to the Pictorial Reader, containing a variety of Easy Lessons upon the most Familiar Subjects, illustrated with numerous engravings.* By RENSSELAER BENTLEY, author of the "Pictorial Spelling Book," etc. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Admirably adapted to the capacities of young children, learning to read. It is printed on snow-white paper, and illustrated with very pretty and appropriate cuts.

26.—*The Deserter.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: M. W. Dodd.

A highly exciting story, in which, as in all the works of this writer, her evangelical religious views are interwoven with the narrative.

27.—*Discourse on the Restoration of the Jews, delivered at the Tabernacle, October 28, and December 2, 1844.* By M. M. NOAH. With a Map of the Land of Israel. New York: Harper & Brothers. [This is an able, eloquent, and catholic defence of the Jews, in which we can discover much to commend, and but little to disapprove. We earnestly hope it may prove instrumental in restoring the "chosen people," scattered abroad, to the land of their fathers. It is *almost* Christian.]

28.—*The Treasury of History; comprising a General Introductory Outline of Universal History, Ancient and Modern, and a Series of Separate Histories of every Principal Nation that Exists; their Rise, Progress, Present Condition, &c.* By SAMUEL MAUNDER, author of the "Treasury of Knowledge," etc. To which is added, The History of the United States. By JOHN INMAN, Esq. New York: Daniel Adee. [The first part of this work comprises 128 octavo pages. It is to be completed in fifteen numbers, and will form two volumes, or more than fifteen hundred closely printed pages. The numbers are to appear monthly, at 25 cents each.]

29.—*The Illustrated Bible History, a Compilation of Important Events recorded in the Old and New Testament.* New York: Wilson & Co. [Two pretty volumes, embracing the most interesting events in the two Testaments, illustrated with 280 handsome engravings.]

30.—*Helen Halsey; or, The Swamp State of Comelachita. A Tale of the Borders.* By WILLIAM GILMORE SIMMS, author of "Richard Hurdis," "The Yemassee," "The Kinemen," etc. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

31.—*The Adventures of Mr. Obadiah Oldbuck, wherein are duly set forth the Crosses, Chagrins, Calamities, Checks, Chills, Changes, and Circumgerations by which his Courtship was attended. Showing also his Suit, and his Espousal to his Lady-Love.* New York: Wilson & Co. [A series of humorous etchings, replete with fun, &c.]

32.—*Library of Select Novels, No. 44. Agincourt; a Romance.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq., author of "Darnley," "De l'Orme," "Arabella Stuart," "Rose D'Albret," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

33.—*Dunigan's Illustrated Edition of the Holy Bible, according to the Douay and Rheimish Versions.* New York: Edward Dunigan. [The sixteen parts of this beautiful edition of the Catholic Bible, just completed, contain several beautiful engravings, illustrating select passages of holy writ.]

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MARCH, 1845.

ART. I.—THE CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

ORIGIN AND OBJECTS OF THE CONSULAR SYSTEM—THE PRESENT SYSTEM AND ITS EVILS, ETC.

As one of the citizens of the United States, participating in its privileges, and jealous of its fame, I cannot express the regret I experienced, when I learned that Congress had adjourned without enacting into a law, the bill introduced in the Senate of the United States, by the Hon. James Semple, to remodel our consular establishment. The abuses of the present system are so glaring, the subject has been so often and so ably discussed, facts in such abundance have been collected, the conviction, that some change ought to take place is so universal, and above all the whole commercial system of America so imperiously demands a change, that I can discover no reason to justify Congress in their insensibility and inaction. A reason undoubtedly exists, and I fear will exist for some time to come, to the prejudice of our commerce in every part of the world. I shall endeavor to make this appear, by a statement of a few facts, which have fallen under my personal observation; for it is quite impossible, in the limits of a single letter, to crowd all the considerations which naturally arise in treating of a subject interwoven with all the interests of modern commerce. And I beg that in the facts I state, and the suggestions they give rise to, I may not be misunderstood. For after reading Mr. Semple's luminous exposition of this matter before the Senate, I should be guilty of unpardonable presumption, in even hoping to cast any new light upon the subject. I only wish to illustrate the propositions of the bill, by a few considerations, which have been the result of my consular experience. At the same time, I make my apology, for speaking often of myself, in the words of Sheridan—"in stating the result of my own experience, I must often allude to myself." I ought also to state, that although I now hold a consulship under our government, I do not seek a reform in the consular system, with the hope of deriving any advantage from it directly myself, for no emolument, of a foreign office, could ever make me, for any length of time, even a voluntary exile from my country. My birth, education, tastes and sympathies are American; and in the luxury, the arts, the

literature of Europe, I can find no adequate compensation for the associations of early friendships, and for the consciousness of living under the shelter of perfect liberty. But I do feel deeply the duty of every man under a free government, where liberty of thought, and freedom of action, universally exist, to illuminate every question of public interest with the lights of his own experience. And who would question even the right of consuls to complain of the abuses of the system under which they suffer, in the service of their government, although they sought a change for their own advantage. As public servants, they feel that they too are entitled to their share of the fruits of a free government—at least all those feel it, who honor their country by their representation. But whatever may be the opinions of others, let each man speak his own sentiments. Let us contemplate—

I. The origin and object of the consular system. We have derived this term from the ancient Romans. When the Tarquin tyrants were driven out of Rome, and the commonwealth was founded, the government of the state was committed to two consuls, who represented the power and the dignity of the nation, and they were regarded with the greatest reverence by the people and foreign princes. They were chosen anually by a general election, and for a long period the office was filled by the purest and most illustrious names in Rome. No one could aspire to the consulship with any hope of success, who had not rendered some signal service to the state. They held correspondence with kings, and gave audience to foreign ambassadors. Their insignia (with the exception of the crown) was like that of kings. They had control of the Roman armies, and led them out to battle. They were the guardians of the public honor, and public safety, at home and abroad, and so faithfully did they execute their trust, that it was under their administration, Rome made her name feared throughout the world. In the latter periods of the republic, consuls were frequently placed over the government of the provinces, and this custom prevailed, even under the Empire, until its final downfall. Some of the most distinguished historians have attributed the glory of Rome to her consular office, and they tell us that she would sooner have lost her provinces, but for their administration. The consular office was nearly or quite blotted out, when the ancient civilization of the Empire was lost, and during the long night of barbarism, which covered Europe, science, liberty and commerce were extinguished. But light began to break over Europe, when the crusades began. Genoa and Venice, in the 12th century, divided the commerce of the world. The Ligurian Republic had been able to resist the rush of barbarians from the north, and had even, in the 9th century, nearly destroyed the Saracen Empire, in Africa. More deeply fired with the spirit of maritime adventure than any other state in the world, she led the way in the commerce of the East, and closed her magnificent career of discovery with the New World. She had opened a flourishing commerce with the East before the time of Peter the Hermit, and she was present at the conquest of Antioch and of Jerusalem. The chivalric leaders of those bold enterprises well knew how much they owed to her valor and commercial power, and the red cross, in the white field, (the ensign of the Ligurian Republic,) was planted on the towers of Antioch, and on the walls of Jerusalem. Godfrey, of Bouillon, and Geoffrey, ordered the following inscription to be placed over the Holy Sepulchre, "STRONG HOLD OF THE GENOESE." As she was in advance of

every other maritime power, it is more than probable, she first established the consular system of modern Europe. It is quite certain, that before the first crusade, she had her consuls all over the Mediterranean. For many ages previous, the only commerce of Europe was a system of freebootery and private plunder. Might made right whenever rivals met, and this system had not yet entirely disappeared in the 12th century. The exigencies of her commerce, particularly in the East, demanded the protection and surveillance of public commercial agents at all the ports visited by her vessels; and so essential was the aid derived from resident consuls, that to them is to be attributed, in no small degree, the rapid extension of Genoese and Venetian commerce, which at last became so incredible. The office of a consul, in those times, was no inconsiderable matter. No man was thought worthy of so important a trust, who did not perfectly understand commerce and diplomacy; for to them, treaties of commerce and international negotiation, involving every question of diplomacy, were continually intrusted. They represented the government that sent them in all its authority and dignity. They were sent to their destination in public vessels, and maintained at the public expense, and it became a proverb in the middle ages, throughout the shores of the Mediterranean, that the Italian consuls were princes. They were prohibited from engaging in speculations or commerce, that they might devote all their time to their official duties, and be swayed by no private interest in their negotiations. The early Genoese and Venetian writers tell us that the consular office was guarded with the utmost jealousy, and looked upon as the greatest support of their commerce with foreign nations. And even at a later period, when the rising powers of Europe began to offer a powerful rivalry to these two states which had so long held sway, and they sent their ambassadors to foreign courts, they gave them the most imperious commands to watch over the commerce of their country, and to concede to other princes nothing that could impair their commercial power or prosperity. The indolent loungers around the courts of princes were busy in the tricks of courtiers, and negotiations of marriage. The Genoese and Venetian ambassadors were occupied principally in promoting their commercial power. And what was the consequence? Venice, which had been founded by a few old men and children, who had fled to a marshy island in the Adriatic, to escape the rage and devastation of the Northern Barbarians, who were then overrunning Italy, in a few centuries came to be one of the first powers of Europe. Genoa, which stands at the head of the Ligurian Sea, hemmed in by overhanging mountains, the Appenines and the Maritime Alps, which she could not cross, could hardly get her bread from the barren and rocky hill-sides, and she was driven out upon the Mediterranean. In the eighth century, she had reached such a pitch of grandeur and power, that the Pontiff of Rome appealed to her to undertake a crusade to Corsica, to hurl a blow against the dreaded power of the Saracens, who, advancing from the African coast, had already gained a foothold upon the continent of Europe, and threatened to sweep over it with devastation. The Pontiff alleged, as the reason of his demand, that Genoa was more adequate to the enterprise than any power in Europe. The event justified his confidence. The little city of Genoa drove the Saracens from their hold on the continent, to the island of Corsica, from Corsica she chased them to Sardinia, from Sardinia she drove them out upon the open sea, and at last

fell upon the seat of their power in Africa, and laid the capital in the dust—seized uncounted millions of their treasures, liberated all the Christian captives they had taken in all their wars, and dragged their dreaded chief to a prison in Italy. At last the Northern States of Europe began to feel the maritime enthusiasm of the age, and went forth upon the seas for discovery and adventure. They finally adopted the commercial system of Italy, and in the seventeenth century it became general all over Europe. But although essential service has been derived from the system adopted by England, France and the Germanic States, it was without a question vastly inferior to that of the Italian Republics. But to it, such as it has been, and still is, we must attribute no inconsiderable share of the commercial prosperity of modern states.

The objects contemplated by the modern consular system are nothing less than the advancement of the prosperity and power of nations. And in modern times, when commerce has become the great question of governments, and its prosperity, or decline, an index of the advancement or decadence of nations, it is surely worthy of some consideration from the government of a Republic, like our own, which to surpass the power and the civilization of all other nations, needs only to be guarded by wisdom. The consul to a foreign nation is sent to be the guardian of all the interests of his country, and sacred is his trust. This is, or ought to be, his business. No pains should be spared, and no exertion or fatigue considered, which can in any manner result in good to his country. He should fully understand the structure, the spirit, and the policy of the nation he represents, and the nation to which he is accredited. He should know their past commercial history and relations, the origin and progress of their commerce, and the causes of its advancement or decline. He should make himself perfectly familiar with the agricultural, the mechanical, and the maritime power of the country to which he is sent—all its branches of industry, and all its resources of wealth—how the great system of reciprocal barter and exchange is carried on, and how it may be extended—the defects of commercial treaties, and how they may be remedied—the branches of commerce, which are sustained by the essential wants and abundance of the two nations, and have, therefore, a basis for permanent prosperity, and those which depend upon exaggerated and ephemeral speculations—what new articles of luxury, or convenience, may be exchanged—what encouragements given to new fields of industry and adventure—what new improvements in agriculture, in manufactures, in science and all the mechanic arts—how the ingenuity of man, in one country, may administer to the economy of life, in another, and finally, what fruit can be gathered by his country from the experiments of men and governments in past ages.

These are the absolute and indespensable objects contemplated by the consulships, and I have thus far limited them to the bare necessity of the office. Let us go a step farther, for the consul must not limit himself to this field.

He is the protector of his countrymen as well as their general interests. Wherever American consuls are found, there will be found his fellow-citizens, in the pursuit of gain, or intelligence, or pleasure, or they may be cast upon his charities from the arms of misfortune. It is wasting words to say, that the consul, who does his duty, will protect his fellow-citizens, when they appeal to him for defence in a foreign country. He will do

something more if he be a man worthy of his station; he will see that they travel or live in a foreign country with the same security and peace, and are treated with all that respect, and allowed to enjoy all that liberty which the more favored of their own subjects enjoy. Owing to their ignorance of the laws, the language, the customs of the country, mistakes may often arise, which, without explanation or interference, may involve them in serious difficulties, expense and dangers; or it may frequently happen that the mistakes, the corruption, the insolence or injustice of civil officers may expose them to a violation of those rights which are secured by international law, or the courtesy of civilized nations. If there be no consul on the spot, or he be a dilatory, or ignorant, or selfish man, or if his influence be small with the government where he lives, or he be disqualified by any circumstance from exercising his consular trusts with fidelity, wisdom and success, it is certain his countrymen can never reside, or even travel through that country, with safety.

But he may feel all this, and in a measure do his prescribed duty, yet his work will be poorly done, unless he inspire respect for his government, his countrymen and himself, in the country where he dwells. Men, and particularly civil officers, always presume upon those for whom their superiors do not manifest respect; and the consul, whose ignorance, or ill breeding, or immorality, or indiscretion, or dishonor, have lost for him that regard, so essential to his success in all public undertakings, will find that the power of his government, or the prosperity of its commerce, or the respectability of his fellow-citizens, will neither save him, or them, from a thousand abuses and insults they never would have presumed on, had he been a different man. I am quite certain, the fair character and high standing of the consul abroad, unaided by an ambassador or commercial treaty, can do more for his country and its interests, if he be the right man, than ambassadors, or treaties, or stipulations can ever effect alone. In fact, I am somewhat skeptical on the point of commercial treaties, especially such as we have generally entered into within a few years. I am well persuaded they have injured our commerce. We have given to other nations more than they have given us in return, or they can ever give us; and although private individuals may "give, without hoping for a return," yet the folly of this policy will sooner or later appear to the prejudice of every nation which adopts it. A good consul, on the spot, is worth to the commerce of a country more than all the treaties in the world. His vigilance is constant, his care unwearied, and by fidelity and wise management, he may win, even from half civilized and barbarous governments, by private influence, what would never have been conceded by treaty. Macchiavelle declared "*il vero ambasciatore e il console.*" The consul is the real ambassador, and unless the consul, by a fixed residence in a foreign country, comes to understand its real policy and interests better than the newly appointed ambassador can understand them, he has failed in his duty. Almost every difficulty that finally ruptures the peace of nations, begins in some commercial question under the immediate inspection of the consul; this is particularly true in modern times, where, in the language of Carlyle, "commerce is king." "I fear no war," said Guizot, a few days ago, in the Chamber of Deputies, "except one that will grow out of commerce." England and France have within a few days adjusted, the papers tell us, the Tahaite and Morocco affairs, which less than twenty-five years ago would have kindled a fire that would have set

the world in a blaze. Why? "We have about come to the conclusion," says a London Ministerial Journal, "that a little spurious honor is worth less than a good many thousand bales of cotton." "Parbleu," says a French Gazette, "do you think you can stuff it down our throats, as the *Rouen Fabricants* do *la gareuse*, that Mr. Pritchard, if we had him, would be worth a single cargo of Lyons silks."

There is more in all this than words; the Times and *le Journal de Debats*, speak out the voice of universal civilization. Nations will hereafter fight for "the commerce king," and not for a whim of a starched, corsetted, perfumed Louis XIV. An ambassador returning from the Sublime Porte, dined with me the other day. "I thought," said he, "I should have my hands full at Constantinople, but the consul there has made me a mere 'hanger on;' I had nothing to do but to go away off any where, to journey over Europe, and live on my pay, and let the consul do my duty, for he knows ten times as much about the business as I do." I ought to say, that he was not an American ambassador. As long ago as Mazzarin's time, he declared: "No man could be a useful ambassador, who had not been a good consul, and no man could be a very bad ambassador, except the man who was ignorant of commerce." Who were Napoleon's consuls? One of them told me that, when Napoleon was in the height of his power, he applied to him for a consulate in a foreign country. "What do you know about the duty of a consul?" asked Napoleon. "I know he can do more than an ambassador," said the young man, boldly, in reply. "Eh bien," said the great captain, "you know your duty, let us see if you will do it; take the office, and ten thousand francs extra pay for the first year." The same man afterwards told General Bertrand, that Napoleon ought not to undertake the expedition to Russia, alleging his reasons. Napoleon heard he had said so: "I'll show him he's mistaken," said Napoleon—we all know the result. Well, while Napoleon was at St. Helena, this consul visited the Emperor, at his request. "You," said he, when he took his hand, in his confinement on that lonely island, "would have been too good a counsellor for me—my evil destiny made you consul, when I ought to have made you my *bon genie*."

We have now glanced at the origin and object of the consular office: let us speak of—

II. The present system and its evils.

In a few words, an American consul is often a foreigner, almost always a merchant, never paid by government, can't live on his fees, nor even pay the necessary expenses of his office; is scolded and cursed by almost anybody that has anything to do with him, and is expected to entertain his countrymen, not only with hospitality, but with a considerable degree of luxury. Says an American consul, who writes me on this subject, "he must not only find out his countryman in town, but call at his hotel, invite him to dinner, sending a carriage for him, get him, in Italy, a box at the opera, (free of course,) spin street yarn with him for one day, or more, as it may be, showing him the lions of the city, with as much *gusto* as though he had not already seen them a thousand times, and be his humble servant for a week or ten days, taking drives out into the neighboring country, &c.; and when he comes to go away, he is expected to vise his passport, *gratis*, and send it to his lodgings. If he does charge his $2, why, "that man must be turned out." The master of a vessel expects to call on his consul, get legal advice, commercial information, defences

before tribunals of commerce, help in difficulty; he stays two weeks, and when he goes away, leaves two or three destitute seamen, the consul is bound to support, by the laws of the country. The government commands him to aid those men, and yet refuses to pay him the disbursements he has made in doing it; and finally, when the captain weighs anchor, he comes up to the consulate, and refuses to pay anything more than $4, "for receiving and delivering papers," and he thinks even this an unreasonable charge. He's a hopeful subject, you say—yes, he is, particularly as he lets you pay the boatman of the port a franc to row you and him (the captain) out to his own ship, to see him off; often he has dined with you at no trifling expense, saying nothing of some few empty Madeira and Port and Champagne bottles. He continues—"Well, next comes the government at home. Once in a few months comes out a circular, (which would be useless, if consuls did their duty,) calling for particular or minute information in regard to the productions and condition of the country, its foreign commerce, and domestic manufactures, prices of labor in every department of industry, exports and imports &c. &c. Well! the next day comes back a letter from the 5th auditor of the treasury, informing you that your draft (sent with proper vouchers) for $125 53 1-2 cts., for sums disbursed for distressed seamen during the past year, or six months as it may be, has been protested. 'You are authorized by law to reimburse only the sum of 20 cents a day (Federal money) for distressed seamen.' The man is discharged from a vessel, sick—he goes to a hospital—is destitute and naked—he must have a pair of pantaloons, a jacket and at least one flannel shirt, and like one of Mr. Squeer's subjects go to bed, while as a Paddy would say, 'he washes his own shirt,' and the old tar must have a little tobacco, 'or do worse,' and then he must eat (but drink water, which wont hurt him, as he is certain to have swallowed his full share of the 'cretur' in his time) and what not. Twenty cents per diem, Federal money, is a pretty large allowance for all this. Oh, yes! Well, the government have been known to protest consuls drafts even for the twenty cents a day, Federal money, for shipwrecked seamen, taken off the shoals and reefs by fishermen—and the consul recalled for—God knows what—and to cap the climax, a foreigner appointed to his place."

My correspondent may be guilty of a shade of extravagance, but this is pretty nearly what Cotton Mather called "the living, royal truth," without exception! "Oh! no," he goes on to say: "Now and then it's true, the traveller says it's really shameful, the government don't pay our consuls like other nations, and he lays down an eagle on your table and says, consul take that, if you will do me the favor—and in spite of your pleasure, in seeing the eagle, that first plumed his wings in Faneuil Hall, ere he took his flight over a thousand hills, (Webster,) and that's a grateful sight to the real American, in a far off land, but he loves the strangers generosity better than his money, and he says: 'No sir, I take only my fee.' 'But do me the favor.' Well, he takes it and gives it to his wife, to keep for his boy, as the gift of the generous stranger. This does sometimes happen—but truth against the whole world—I have oftener received a letter from the next town, telling me I should be turned out for that enormous and unjust charge of $2,—when even the consuls of the princely and tyrannical governments of Europe (who, he might have said, have prince's pay) 'never charge but four, or at most five francs.' He is rabid, 'and you will be turned out, when I get back to America.' Now and

then, too, a generous captain comes along,—'Consul, I'm coming up,' says he, to-morrow, to take some of your grub.' 'Well done, captain, come on.' You give him a good dinner, he's a generous fellow; before he sails, you, and it may be, your wife, are invited aboard, the ship's boat is at the pier for you, before the time—there's a cushion in it, too, and it's all nice and clean, there is a very nice little piece of bunting, too, hanging over the *tiller*, with thirteen red and white stripes, and as many white stars in a field of blue, the oars strike handsomely in the water, and dip like a man of war's men's. As you approach the merchantman, you see through the forest of masts an ensign floating, you have seen before, the boat comes along side, the captain comes down the ladder in his Sunday's best, and in a moment a chair is lowered by a tackle, and in goes the consuless, and up goes the chair. Well, the dinner is plain, but great cheer, such as hungry men call good; the captain is a gallant for the hour—you think, after all, a good American captain 'is the goodest of all men'—we are again in the boat, captain at the *tiller*, this time—what you got there, captain? Oh, there's a half a dozen smoked hams, and a keg of molasses, and a barrel of buckwheat flour, and the buckwheat flour is good, any how, for it comes from 'down east,' where the way we eat it is a caution to all hungry men, and I shall be much obleeged to you, if you'll let my men take it up to your house. Rare fellows, they do sometimes come over the consul's vision like '*naves rares gurgiteur*,' &c. But out again with the truth. The chance is, that the captain asks you if you'll have the goodness to send the bill of port-charges and consular fees on board—Oh! yes. Well, more than once my vice consul has received just as much of the bill as the captain pleased to pay, and then been told to leave the deck and tell the consul, his d——m bill of port-charges, and consular extortions, he would pay him under his bow-sprit.* Well, sometimes the government, through a powerful friend, makes a consul a charge d'affairs, after he has served several years faithfully in the quality of consul. This is almost invariably the case with other governments, who, by the by, seem to understand their own interests a good deal better than we, but more commonly after the consul has gone to all the expense of establishing himself in a foreign country, and has just commenced a successful business, some broken down merchant goes to Washington, and the consul is told he is no longer consul, (postage on the valuable document unpaid.")

Now, let us ask any reasonable man, what sort of a consular system are we likely to have, under these circumstances? He will answer, without a moment's reflection,—"the very worst in the world"—and facts bear him out in his answer.

It is quite certain, there are not ten American consulates in the world, that will support a consul, even with the greatest economy; and, the great proportion of them, do not even support themselves—their total receipts will not re-imburse the expense of office-rent and stationary, to say nothing of a clerk, and the incidental expenses of the consulate. The evils that naturally spring out of such a system are more numerous, and more serious, than any man supposes, who has not been a consul:

I. The office of a consul is, generally, held either by American merants or foreigners; for, with a few exceptions, no American, who is alified for such a station, will ask for, or except an office, which is only

* This is quite a common trick, I have heard from many consuls.

a bill of expense. Some go abroad, with exaggerated ideas of the emoluments of a consulship, and, finding out their mistake, leave very soon. Those whose private fortunes are adequate to their support, will not confine themselves, for any great length of time, to the grudgery of a consulship; and they, who are so rich they care not for the fees, are rich enough to travel, and they generally fling up their commissions. Some consuls, who supposed their offices would, at least with strict economy, support them, and, perhaps, spent their all in getting to their stations, are, sometimes, too poor even to go home—like some of Carlyle's chartists, who are "too lean to rebel," and they stay, and get all out of their office they can, and exceed their lawful fees—they must do it or starve. They are not the only men, whom the State makes dishonest! Endless difficulties and disputes, between masters and commercial houses, and the consul, arise; the consul is complained of, and turned out, perhaps; well, he deserves it, for "he broke the consular law;" and, after all, the same man may have been much purer, and better, and nearer right, than the law itself. This poor consul is the slave of an unjust and unwise system!

Edward Livingston, in 1833, while Secretary of State, called the attention of Congress to a reform in our consular system in an able report, which, after all, seems to have had very little effect. He says: "In many, perhaps the greater number of cases, the office is sought for, chiefly, for the advantages, and the influence it will give to extend the commercial affairs of the officer. Can it be believed this influence will always be properly exercised? When it is, will not contrary suspicions be entertained? This must create jealousy, detraction, and all the arts that rivalship will exercise and provoke, amidst which, the dignity of the public officer is degraded, and his influence with the foreign functionaries lost."

There is more truth in these words, of that singulary clear-sighted statesman, than appears. It is almost certain, that a merchant can never make a good consul; he may perform, with the utmost fidelity, all the details of his official functions; he may be, as most of our American merchants are, a man of high and pure honor, and unspotted integrity; all pecuniary interests committed to him may be safe, and he may watch, with great vigilance, over all the interests of the commerce of his country, (conceed all you wish, and we have such consuls,) it is, still, almost certain, that man cannot be a good consul, and, for many reasons—his time is, and must be, devoted principally to his own affairs, and, it must be a very obscure, and a very insignificant consulate, which does not demand that very same time for official duty. True, a ship's papers may be signed and delivered, and the vessel sent to sea, in one hour; a passport may be signed in five minutes, or less, and registered; but, writing his name and affixing the consular seal, is a pretty small part of a consul's duty. If he cherish the views and feelings we have before mentioned, of his country and his office, he will find it is enough to be a consul, without spending eight or ten hours a day in his counting-room. But, there is no little danger that, in spite of himself, his own interests, or prejudices, or relations, will sway his judgment in all his official conduct. A ship enters the port, with a cargo of, no matter what; his own interests are to be affected by the sale or consignment of that cargo, (it must be so, if he be a merchant, for commerce is competition for gain between man and man,) is it likely he will give the captain such information, or advice, as will most directly prejudice his own interests?

The captain has a difficulty with a merchant, and the case is carried to arbitration, or a judicial tribunal—is it likely the consul will give any advice, or take any measure, calculated to injure the interests, or excite the animosity, of the merchants, or the local authorities of the country where he resides? His success in business, is, in a great measure, dependant upon the good will of the authorities and the people, and it is perfectly certain, that, sooner or later, disputes and difficulties will arise, when he will fail in his official duty, or take part with the captain, at the expense of his own personal popularity and influence; and, in the name of reason, how is he to act, when he, as a consignee, has a difficulty with his captain? Has he two identities?—a consular, and a mercantile one? No! the judge, the jury, the council, the witness, the merchant, and the consul, sit in the same chair—he can administer the oath to himself—examine, and cross examine himself—why, the very idea is enough to disturb the gravity of an Esquimaux Indian!

But what security have you, that your consul-merchant is to be so pure, high-minded, and honorable a man? there are such, I know, and I well know they are few. More than one consul has been appointed, who had failed in business at home, and left no very dubious character, as a sinking fund for his creditors. They hope, in a foreign country, to begin anew to court fortune—finally get consignments, and, at last, become rich—some do. I might state facts which have fallen under my own personal observation, in different European countries, in regard to our consular system, but my motives, for so doing, would be misunderstood. Many of our merchant-consuls, however, are our best consuls; I might speak of Mr. Sprague, of Gibraltar; Mr. Payson, of Messina; Mr. Edwards, of Buenos Ayres; and others. Under our present consular system, perhaps, we cannot have better men; but the odds, on the other side, are fearful; it is more commonly the case that the merchant-consul utterly neglects his official duty to attend to his own affairs.

But it is perfectly certain the consul-merchant will, generally, have little influence with the government, to which he is accredited. By entering into business, he, voluntarily, gives up the station he might otherwise occupy; other things being equal, commerce is more than respectable, it is everywhere honorable; but, in nearly all countries, although the merchant, as a merchant, may often be received in polite society, yet, he does not expect to move in so select a circle as an official character. The consul-merchant will find that he loses his standing, by entering into business, and this will appear whenever the experiment is made. Why not allow ambassadors, and charges d'affaires, to carry on business? an ambassador could, undoubtedly, make money, owning ships; and a very insignificant charge could keep a very good shop of Yankee notions, which would, most likely, sell very well; but he would, at least, seem to be an odd charge, and, probably, his customers would laugh at him when he rode by, in his lace, chapeau, and sword, to go to court; and yet it is respectable to buy and sell goods! "Oh, yes! commerce is the great humanizer of mankind, the agent of civilization!" "Yes! all that; but one thing at a time, if ye care after well done things." A consul is not clothed with diplomatic power. True—but his office partakes more or less of the diplomatic character, and he is often obliged to conduct the most important international affairs; his relative position to a charge d'affaires, is the same the charge bears to the ambassador, and, very fre-

quently, the consulship is vastly more important than the legation, and the consul may often be called on, by the ministry of the government to which he is, for information, for correspondence, for an audience with a sovereign, (such things often happen,) and, in all such cases, the difference between the consul, who maintains his station with dignity, and is known to be a man of letters and polite education, and the common consul-merchant, will be found to be just great enough, to secure for one, all the respect paid to a diplomatist, and the other, all the attention a business man receives from the courtier. Although the former makes no more pretensions, yet, he is, *a priori*, supposed to be a man of more elevated and liberal views, more polite education, more finished address, and more extended and richer learning. In all European countries, where such wide distinctions and ranks exist, and where no merchant is admitted to the society of the first class, the consul who would, otherwise, naturally be found there, voluntarially cuts himself off from such society, by assuming the garb of an inferior class; and the effect of it will appear, when an important crises arises, and great interests are committed to his hands. I need not enlarge here, every intelligent man understands this, nor need I disclaim any fondness for European aristocracy; I have too long been committed to the American people, on this subject, to be misunderstood—the whole thing is said in two words. The consul-merchant will be treated, by everybody, from the king to the boatman, as a merchant, in all his applications, relations, and intercourse; the consul, in the high sense of the term, will be treated as the representative of his country. Let us look at the policy of other great nations—they understand this matter. None of the other great powers, and only two or three of the smaller ones, suffer their consuls to have anything to do in any commercial speculations; they know the myriad evils which flow from a system we cling to so tenaciously, and they are careful to avoid them; they universally pay their consuls salaries adequate, in all instances, and often much better than our charges d'affaires; all fees go to the government, and all causes of dispute and difficulty are taken away. The office of a consul becomes a desirable post, and is sought for by able, well educated, cultivated, and experienced men. The consequence is a natural one—they are abler, and more respectably represented than ourselves; their consuls are treated with more honor, and their citizens with more respect; their governmemt receives privileges, and concessions, and favors, which are utterly denied to our own. "As is the priest, so is the people." With them, a consulship *is* regarded as a necessary step to a higher diplomatic station; and the man who discharges the duties of the one, with ability and honor, is sure to be rewarded by the other. Their consuls cannot be appointed without some special qualification, and they are rarely recalled, unless guilty of maladministration; they are familiar with their official duty, and few changes take place.

Take a single illustration. No place in Europe, of the same amount of commerce, has so splendid a consular representation as Genoa; the consuls of most of the leading powers here are noblemen, and many of them have been charges d'affairs, or secretaries of legations; their salaries vary from $5,000 to $20,000 a year. Only one nation in the world has more commerce with Genoa than our own, and yet the fees of this consulate will not support a clerk, and pay the incidental expense of the office!

Is it any wonder that, within four years, we have had five consuls here, and three of them foreigners?

Another evil, and, perhaps, a greater one still in our present consular system, is the appointment of foreigners to office. General Jackson introduced a reform in this matter, Mr. Van Buren prosecuted it, and Mr. Tyler has done more than all our former presidents, put together; but, still, a very large number of our consuls are foreigners—I do think it requires no argument to prove that no foreigner, under any circumstances, should ever hold an office under our government. By a foreigner, I mean a man who owes allegiance to a foreign government. Set a wolf to watch the fold, but, in God's name, don't commit republicanism to the keeping of foreigners, and, last of all, to Englishmen. I received a letter from an American consul, (a foreigner,) not long ago, addressed to "His Lordship, the American Consul General of the United States, at Genoa," and signed "———, Consul General of the United States and its Dependencies." This is a fair sample of the intelligence of foreigners in our institutions and affairs. Who ever heard of Great Britain asking a foreigner to hold an office for her? John Bull ask another dog to watch his fold? Not he! This is one of the good things of the exclusiveness and pride of England! this is the spirit which has brought her to the top of the world! and what is her consular system? In the most distant port, of the most barbarous nation, where no American would except the office of a consul, the English send an intelligent, experienced man, and maintain him, too, with a handsome salary, and he is backed by all the authority of the government. This is one of the reasons why that tremendous power is so universally dreaded. She is everywhere present, and no man or nation can tread upon the folds of her mantle, without finding cause to repent of it afterwards; and Mr. Pritchard, an obscure consul, in a port of Otahaite, can treat a gallant French admiral with insolence, and Parliament make a great noise about it, and all the world is likely to get into a flame that will burn around the globe, and, at last, to give satisfaction to the consul, the French admiral is disgraced. Very well, John Bull, I like you for it; your pride sticks to you, like life to the adder's tail, and it will make you glorious, like Rome, even in your decay. It has made you what you are—it makes you very disagreeable, but it makes you very great.

It is humiliating to contrast our consular system with even that of half-civilized nations; but I have written longer than I intended to, and will soon close; I have not mentioned a tenth part of the evils of our present system, nor said half what I had intended to.

What shall be done?

Adopt one of the plans submitted to Congress, by those who have sought a reform in the consular system, and you will do well. Mr. Livingston's, of 1833, is a good one—it provided that thirty-six of our principal consuls, should be paid salaries, averaging $2,000=$72,000; one hundred and twenty-six vice consuls, and commercial agents, average salary, $1,000=$126,000; total expense, $198,000. Consuls were, by the provisions of his bill, I think, prohibited from engaging in commerce.

It is thus seen, that, for a trifling expense, an able and respectable consular corps could be maintained, that would reflect honor upon our nation; and, "I take the responsibility" of saying, that, after the experiment

was fairly tried, not a man, could be found who would advocate a return to the old system. Three grand provisions should be made, in whatever new system is adopted :—1st. Consuls and vice consuls should be paid a proper salary, like all other officers of the government, and all fees should go to the United States. 2d. They should be prohibited from engaging in commerce. 3d. No foreigner should be appointed, under any circumstances. In the Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1842, there is a valuable paper on the "Consular System of the United States," and the suggestions of the writer are worthy the most earnest attention of the American government.*

Any system which embraces the above-mentioned provisions, will be better than the present. A great advantage would, also, be experienced by adopting the commercial agency system of Great Britain. Mr. J. G. Harris, of Tennessee, who was sent, in 1843, to Europe, as tobacco agent, and collected a good deal of valuable information for the government, told me, that, at the great meeting of the Talserin, there were thirteen commercial agents of Great Britain there ! He was there by accident, and, I think, at the time, he was the only commercial agent of the United States in Europe ! ! Is it to be supposed our Congress is to be well informed of the commercial condition, and relations of European countries, when no more pains are taken to gather commercial information ? They must be close students, indeed, to know much about the real state of our commercial interests in Europe, to get full and accurate information, from our newspapers, or commercial treaties, or books of travel. My own observation has convinced me that, upon commercial information gathered in that way, very little reliance can be placed. The price of stocks, and the fluctuations of trade, may be pretty accurately known from such sources ; but, what has the American government to do with such things, in directing its foreign policy ? That kind of information the statesman wants for his guidance in public deliberations, is more important, and more extended, and is not to be gained from published documents, or acquired without labor and careful examination on the spot.

But I fear, after all this, that the great argument always brought against such beneficent changes, will still prevail, and the present system of inaction, inefficiency, and abuse continue. The government can appropriate millions to any purpose under heavens, that meets with the acclamation of demagogues and voters ; and it can extinguish lighthouses along our coast, to save a few gallons of oil ; twenty millions are voted, with acclamation, for hunting down Seminole Indians, through the

* I cannot suffer this opportunity to pass without paying my humble tribute of respect to your noble journal. Mr. Guizot, a few months ago, said to an American gentleman of my acquaintance, that, in his opinion, it was the most valuable commercial work in the world. I have heard Lord Brougham express the same opinion. It is a pity it could not be placed in the hands of every American master—I doubt not, every ship owner in America would "make a speculation" to buy a copy of it for every captain he sends to sea, and compel him to read it. A very intelligent sea captain told me, last summer, he should be afraid to enter a foreign port, if he had not Hunt's Magazine with him—he considered it, on shore, as necessary, as Bowdicth, at sea. In the summer of 1842, the chief partner of a large house in New York told me, he did not doubt that book had saved him a thousand dollars a year. For myself, I consider it "the consul's own guide"—I have rarely found a consular, or commercial exigency, for which it did not provide—in some very difficult and trying exigencies, I have had recourse to it, when, in my instructions, I could find no directions, and, in every instance, I believe, my decisions have been confirmed by the supreme courts, and the government at home. C. E. L.

swamps of Florida; and the merchantman is left without a protector, when she goes loaded with her precious cargo to the distant port. The party in power, no matter who they are, can pay $50,000 a year more than is necessary, to a public printer, for documents that are carted into the lumber rooms of the capital, to be eaten by worms, but it cannot spend half the sum to adorn the same noble edifice with the most valuable library for sale in Europe, and the petty German prince takes it away, while Congress is voting that it would be of very little use to America, as most of the books are in foreign languages!! and, in that congregrated mass of wisdom, John Quincy Adams, the papers say, was the only man who told them that was just the reason why it should be had. But better days will come! C. E. L.

United States Consulate, Genoa, 30th of August, 1844.

Art. II.—THE IRON TRADE.

The manufacture of iron indicates, perhaps, more than any other, the march of civilization, and its progress is coeval with those arts which elevate a nation, and constitute the best evidence of its wealth. And as it is essential to every department of human industry, directly or indirectly, and to a country's independence, it becomes an interesting object of investigation to trace its progress and survey its condition. The war declared by Congress against Great Britain, in 1812, and the events connected therewith, gave a great stimulus to manufactures, in this country, and induced the diversion of capital from commerce and agriculture, to be invested in mills, workshops and factories. Every encouragement was given to mechanics, who were instructed in a knowledge of machinery, and in Pennsylvania, admitted freeholders on the day of their arrival. High duties were imposed on the foreign raw material, while the implements, tools, and even furniture of the immigrant mechanics, were admitted free of duty. Metallurgy became an object of study; and the vast resources of the country brought more prominently to view, and its inexhaustible supplies of fuel and mineral ore elaborated to the production of iron.

In 1790, Colonel Hamilton remarks that the manufactures of iron had grown up with surprising rapidity, and proposes on them a duty of 10 per cent, ad valorem; but it is not till 1810, that we have the earliest authentic accounts of the quantity of iron produced in the United States; when, according to Adam Seybert, (who collects from official documents,) from 153 furnaces, were made 53,908 tons pig iron; from 330 forges, were made 24,541 tons bar iron; from 410 naileries, were made 15,727,914 lbs. nails; and there were 316 trip-hammers, and 34 rolling and slitting-mills, which required 6,500 tons of iron; and the total value of the manufactures of iron was $14,364,526; and 19,000 muskets were annually made at the two public armories of Springfield and Harper's Ferry. In this stage of its manufacture, the elevation given to the price, by the restrictive legislation, operated onerously on the consumer, and tended to repress industry, and diminish consumption. The duty was—

	In 1818.	In 1824.	In 1828.
On bar iron, rolled,..per ton	$30 00	$30 00	$37 00
" hammered,....	15 00	18 00	22 40
On pig iron,.....	10 00	10 00	12 50

but, even under this high protection, the production did not exceed, in twenty years, 191,536 tons of pig iron, from 239 furnaces, according to the statement of the committee appointed to report on iron, by Congress, in 1830. There were then made 112,866 tons of bar iron, and 25,520 tons castings; in the manufacture of which, 25,254 men were employed.

The extreme dissatisfaction of the South, at the fiscal regulations relative to foreign commerce, and the threats held out of nullification, led to the enactment, by Congress, of the compromise act of 1832; and it may be curious to notice the votes which were given on that memorable occasion:

TARIFF BILL.

States.	Ayes.	Noes.
New England,.....	16	34
Middle States, including New York,...	32	52
Southern,.....	67	1
Western,.....	37	13
Total,.....	152	100

By the operation of this tariff, the duty on English bars was gradually reduced from $30 per ton, in 1832, to $27 in 1834, $24 in 1836, $21 in 1838, $18 in 1840, $14 in the first six months of 1842; and, finally, to $7 50 per ton, in July and August of 1842, and on other kinds in similar proportion; and the effect had upon the importation may be seen in the table which we give at the close of this article.

The iron district, which spreads through New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Western Virginia, traverses regions exuberant with coal, and abounding in water-power; and, travelling further west, we find in Ohio, Kentucky, and particularly in Missouri, immense stores of metalliferous wealth, adjacent to the most fertile agricultural districts. It is to Pennsylvania, however, we must chiefly direct our attention, where two-fifths of all the iron in the United States is made. The United States contain 80,000 square miles of coal, which is about sixteen times as great as the coal measures of Europe. A single one of these gigantic masses runs from Pennsylvania to Alabama, and must embrace, itself, 50,000 square miles. Out of fifty-four counties of Pennsylvania, no less than thirty have coal and iron in them; and, out of the 46,000 square miles of Pennsylvania, which form its superficies, there are 10,000 miles of coal and iron; while all Great Britain and Ireland have only 2,000—so that Pennsylvania, alone, has an area of coal and iron five times as great as that of Great Britain. The quality of the coal and iron is as rich as that of Great Britain, and they have the advantage of lying near the water-level; while those of the latter country are sometimes more than one thousand feet below the surface, and are excavated through subterranean passages.

The coal frontiers, forming an amphitheatre, intersected at intervals with streams of water, are accessible through ravines, to which they converge; thus inviting the labor of the miner, by the facility of access and transportation. The coal of Wyoming lies conveniently for the supply of the lake frontier, and the whole of the northern part of New York; and the Lehigh, Schuylkill, Wilkesbarre, and Cumberland coal-fields, for the supply of the Atlantic border, and the domestic and manufacturing purposes of the interior.

Since 1820, when the trade commenced, the quantity of anthracite coal which left the different regions for market, has increased from 365 tons, to 1,631,670 tons, last year.

With these materials and resources so profusely prepared for the enterprise of man, we must look for the causes which retarded this manufacture, so as, the ten years past, to require an importation of more than forty millions dollars of iron and steel.

The principal portion of the pig and wrought iron was made in the United States with charcoal, and in England and Scotland with mineral coal. The latter was vastly cheaper, and became scarcer every year; and here we may remark that, in the whole of Europe, charcoal is used for the reduction of the ore, with the exception of some furnaces in France and the Netherlands. If the ore be smelted, and the iron puddled with bituminous coal, it requires an average of about six tons of coal for every ton of bar iron. If the iron be smelted with charcoal, and puddled with bituminous coal, (the mode in use here at the period to which we allude,) then a little less than two tons of bituminous coal was required. The average price of the bituminous coal, at the works in England, which is in close proximity to the iron ore, is not more than $1¼ per ton. The same coal costs, when we get it to our works, situated at some distance from the ore, from $7 to $9 per ton; and the cost of transportation, and the difference in the value of the charcoal used here for smelting, and the coal used there, was very greatly in favor of England. England, too, has the advantage of priority in improvement in the manufacture, in the concentration of capital, and the cheapness of labor, which forms 75 per cent of the cost, as well as the economy of fuel; and the most striking proof of the advancement in this branch is, that her furnaces produce 3,500 tons annually each, on the average, of pig or cast iron; while here they do not annually produce 1,000 tons each, on the average.

Another impediment was the great indisposition existing amongst capitalists, in our cities, to advance money to carry on works situated in the far interior, (where the bituminous coal and iron ore may be found,) which they could not overlook, and the want of cheap inland communication with the markets on the seaboard. This last consideration, which we shall again allude to, is of importance, as the costly transportation, itself, acts as a bounty on the foreign iron introduced to the Atlantic ports, and far exceeds the freight from England and Scotland.

Before entering on the present condition of the trade here, we will take a brief review of the progress in Great Britain.

In 1740, there were in that country but 59 furnaces, yielding 17,350 tons cast iron, or 294 tons per furnace. They were heated with charcoal, and the blast given from leather bellows. The establishments did not flourish, as loud complaints were made of the destruction of her woods, from the use of the charcoal. Indeed, an act was passed for the importation of pig iron, (1750,) from the American colonies, to reduce the consumption of wood in smelting; but, in 1783, Mr. Cort obtained a patent for making iron in a reverbatory, or air-furnace, heated by common raw pit coal; and another for manufacturing the iron, when malleable, into bars, bolts, &c., by passing it, in a welding heat, through rollers with grooves, instead of working it under forge-hammers, the mode before employed, by which the scoriæ were separated. By this improvement, fifteen tons of iron were obtained in twelve hours; while, in the same time, only

one ton was drawn from the hammer; and this may be considered the era from which to date the growth of the present valuable element of the national prosperity of England. Then came the introduction of the coke refinery, which brought the balling and puddling furnace into general use, with the addition of rollers instead of hammers. In 1788, the make was 68,300 tons, from 85 furnaces, or 804 tons per furnace; and in 1796, 125,079 tons, from 121 furnaces, or 1,033 tons per furnace; having nearly doubled itself in eight years. It then rapidly extended itself, at the several periods mentioned below, to the present enormous production of 1,578,260 tons.

Years.	Furnaces in blast.	Pig iron, per annum.	Annual make, per furnace.
1806,.....	169	258,206 tons.	1,528 tons.
1820,.....	....	400,000 "	.... "
1823,.....	237	452,066 "	1,907 "
1825,.....	259	581,367 "	2,244 "
1828,.....	278	703,184 "	2,529 "
1830,.....	333	678,417 "	3,037 "
1839,.....	378	1,248,781 "	3,303 "
1844,.....	451	1,578,260 "	2,498 "

Which is thus distributed:—

South Wales,.....	565,700 tons.	132	furnaces in blast.
Forest of Dean,.....	27,000 "	7	"
Staffordshire, South,.....	370,000 "	120	"
" North,.....	30,400 "	12	"
Shropshire,.....	110,600 "	34	"
Yorkshire,.....	112,000 "	41	"
Derbyshire,.....	47,560 "	17	"
North Wales,.....	43,000 "	16	"
Newcastle-on-Tyne,.....	17,000 "	7	"
Scotland,.....	255,000 "	65	"
Total,.....	1,578,260 "	451	"

About three-tenths of the quantity made, is used in the state of pig or cast iron, and is consumed principally in Great Britain and Ireland; and the other seven-tenths are converted into wrought iron, being formed into bars, bolts, rods, sheets, &c.; and her exports increased, according to parliamentary returns, in periods of four years, from 104,726 tons in 1827, 139,577 tons in 1831, 219,203 tons in 1835, 269,088 tons in 1839, to 448,879 tons in 1843, viz:—

Bar iron,.....tons	176,148
Bolt and rod,.....	22,625
Pig,.....	154,770
Hoop,.....	14,590
Old,.....	5,924
Iron wire,.....	1,508
Anchors, grapnels, &c.,.....	3,058
Nails,.....	6,020
Unwrought steel,.....	3,199
All other sorts, except ordnance,.....	44,577
Total,.....tons	448,879

In the same year, she imported only about 15,000 tons; 11,000 tons of which was from Sweden, to be converted into steel. Previous to 1786, she *imported* 70,000 tons iron, from Sweden and Russia, per annum—her export last year was considerably beyond 448,00 tons; for the Miner's Journal states that, for the year ending 5th September, 1844, the amount of iron and steel, of copper, brass, and tin, was £4,136,984, against, in same time, 1843, £3,405,568; being an increase of £731,416 in one year, of the export in these metals. The largest blast-furnace in South Wales is 18 feet diameter in the boshes, 9 to 10 feet in the filling place, the height 40 feet; so that the capacity is equal to 7,000 cubic feet; and, when at work, must contain 150 tons of ignited materials for smelting. At the Plymouth iron-works, are 7 furnaces, blown with cold air, which produce each about 5,300 tons cast iron, per annum.

Larger and better-formed furnaces, improved blast, superior knowledge in its application—in the preparation of the materials, and the working of the furnaces, have contributed to the extraordinary increase in the yield; and those furnaces in Staffordshire, which make the best work, as to yield and quality, do not exceed 11½ to 12 feet in the boshes. The furnaces in the United States are generally not more than 8 to 9 feet in the boshes, to which circumstance is mainly to be attributed the comparatively smaller product.

Such has been the effect of combined economy, skill, and intelligence, applied to this manufacture, that pig iron, which sold in 1803 to 1815 for £6 a £7 10 per ton, was reduced to £3 per ton in Wales, and some contracts were made in Scotland at £2, last year; and bar iron, which sold in the same period at £12 a £16 per ton, was reduced to £4 15 per ton, last year.

As Mr. Cort's process for converting refined metal, or pig iron, into malleable iron, became better understood, various meliorations were adopted; one of which was, replacing sand with iron bottoms, in the furnace. Mr. Cort's object in refining the ore with coke, previous to puddling it in a reverbatory furnace, was to decarburate the iron; and, by substituting the drawing cylinders for the extension under the hammer, and subjecting the puddled iron to a second heating, he materially advanced the manufacture of bar iron. At first, there was a waste of 30 to 35 cwt. of iron; afterwards, one ton of bars resulted from only 20 to 26 cwt. of iron, including the waste in the refinery.

It is not our design to expatiate on the minutiæ of this manufacture, but to attempt to describe the progress of an art, the importance of which, is making, every day, stronger claims on our acknowledgment, and take a general view of its extent, the elaborations of which, form the elements of all industrial pursuits, are becoming appropriated to the uses of commerce, as well as science and agriculture. We cannot, therefore, omit to notice an innovation, producing the most signal alteration in the fabrication of this metal—the invention of hot for cold blast, or, the substitution in the furnace, of air heated to a very high temperature, instead of common atmospheric air.

Mr. Neilson, manager of the gas works, at Glasgow, took out a patent, in 1828, and succeeded in producing cast iron by the hot blast. When in operation, the economical result was very apparent, for, whereas, previously, it required 8 tons of coal for 1 ton of pig iron, by the cold air, 2 1-4 tons of coal was now an adequate supply. This method acquired gene-

ral use in Scotland, and was afterwards introduced in this country. Mr. Mushet, in his papers on iron and steel, (1839,) says: "Instead of 20 or 30 cwt. of limestone, formerly used, the blackband, (or ironstone,) now required only 6 or 8 cwt. to the production of a ton. This arises from the extreme richness of the ore, when roasted, and from the small quantity of earthy matter it contains, which renders the operation of smelting the blackband, with hot blast, more like the melting of iron, than the smelting of an ore. When properly roasted, its richness ranges from 60 to 70 per cent; so, little more than 1 1-2 ton is required to make a ton of pig iron, and, as 1 ton of coal will smelt 1 ton of roasted ore, it is evident, when the blackband is used alone, 1 3-4 ton of our coal will suffice to the production of 1 ton of good grey pig iron."

About 20,000 tons of this pig iron is annually imported into the United States, being chiefly used, for its softness and fluidity, to mix with the harder qualities of American pig iron, in the formation of castings and hollow-ware.

Notwithstanding that an increase in the quantity of one-fourth followed this mode of operation, the hot blast meets with much prejudice in Wales, where the cheapness of the fuel does not render its reduced consumption so much an object, and the cold blast there generally prevails. In 1740 the smelting of iron ores, in England, was executed entirely with charcoal, and the ores employed, were principally brown and red hematites. Earthy iron ores were also smelted, but the sole smelting material of the present day, is the argillaceous carbonate of iron, or the clay iron stone, and, so admirably adapted are some locations for ferrugineous productions, that, in Dudley, in Staffordshire, the iron ore, the limestone for flues, and the fire clay for constructing the brick-work of the furnace, are found associated together.

One-third of the mineral basin of South Wales is a formation of anthracite coal, and Mr. Crane, in 1837, succeeded in smelting iron from anthracite coal, from 27 cwt. from which he obtained 1 ton of iron. In Mr. Crane's furnace, the consumption of the coal was diminished one-third, and the yield of iron increased 50 per cent more, by the anthracite coal and hot blast, than ever before by coke from coal and the cold blast.

Mr. W. Lyman first put in successful operation, at Pottsville, Pennsylvania, in 1839, a furnace for smelting iron by anthracite coal and the hot blast. In 1840, Messrs. Biddle, Chambers & Co. erected extensive works in Dansville, Pa., on the same principle, and Messrs. Reeves & Whitaker changed their furnace, at Phœnixville, Pa., from the use of charcoal to anthracite coal.

Mr. Lyman's furnace yielded 35 tons of cast iron per week, but Mr. Thomas, the agent of Mr. Crane, superintended some works, erected about the same time, by the Lehigh Coal Company, at Allentown, Pa., called "Crane Works," from which were obtained, when first in blast, 60 tons per week; and now, in that state, 17 furnaces, employing anthracite coal and hot blast, producing 47,000 tons per annum. In that state, anthracite coal is always used in smelting with hot air, and in puddling, in most instances, the process undertaken is the ignited gas, on the principle of Detmold's patent, obtained in England. In Maryland, bituminous coal is used in puddling, in New York, charcoal—the "black diamond" not being one of the constituents of the mineral wealth of the Empire

State. And west of the Alleghany ridge, we find only the bituminous formation, except in the Cumberland region.

At Brady's Bend Iron Works, are two blast furnaces, capable of producing 5,000 tons cast iron per annum, each; a rolling-mill, which has 12 puddling furnaces, from the whole of which could be obtained 8,500 tons iron per annum; 1 scrap, and 3 balling furnaces, for merchant mill, or finishing rolls; and a nail factory, capable of manufacturing three tons per day, of assorted nails; besides works for sheet and boiler plate, &c.; and the manager of these works, P. Raymond, Esq., solicits orders for the heavy H, T, and V rails, at even lower rates, it is stated by Niles' Register, than the Mount Savage Works. At these latter works, situated in Maryland, at the foot of Mount Savage, nine miles from Cumberland, is erected a rolling-mill, calculated to produce weekly 150 tons iron, including boiler, plate, sheet, hoop, band, and railroad iron, where the heavy edge rail is offered to be made for $59 a $60 per ton.

In New Jersey, are 12 furnaces, yielding 12,000 tons pig iron per annum; and in Bergen and Morris counties 65 forges, which make annually 3,000 tons bloomery bar iron; and this last description of iron, which is made by a single operation from the ore, without the intervention of the blast furnace, technically called "blooming," is prosecuted to some extent in Connecticut, Vermont, New York, and Pennsylvania, as well as East Jersey. New Jersey obtains her coal by the Morris canal, from Pennsylvania, and supplies even that state with pig iron, reduced from her rich ores. In New York, in Clinton county, the legislature has determined on constructing a prison where convict labor may be employed in manufacturing iron in the Catalan forge; and the heat, which has heretofore been suffered to escape, is now availed of, by a system of conduction, to generate steam, which drives the trip-hammers while melting the ore. As this operation is performed at the mouth of the mine, without the cost of transportation of the ore and coal to a distant water-power, the preparation of the ore, and its conversion through the various stages of manufacture, can be conducted by the convicts in the prison-yard, at a very reduced cost.

In 1810, 11,000 tons bar iron only were made in Pennsylvania, when there were 44 blast furnaces, 78 forges, and 175 naileries.

In 1840, in the United States, it appears from the report of the committee appointed by the New York State Home League, the trade had so far progressed that we had 450 blast furnaces, yielding 347,700 tons pig iron, being 772 tons per furnace; and 795 bloomeries, forges, rolling-mills, &c., yieldidg 208,440 tons wrought iron. The number of furnaces differ from the census of that year, which was manifestly exaggerated.

At the present moment there are 13,000 tons bar iron made in the state of New York, chiefly in Essex and Clinton counties. Near Baltimore city, 20 furnaces are in operation, giving 20,000 tons per annum; and so great has been the impetus given to the iron trade, that in every direction new furnaces are being constructed, and those out of blast again becoming active, in Pennsylvania. In the vicinity of Danville 40,000 or 50,000 tons of coal have illumined the hearths of the furnaces in that region last year. The Montour Iron Company have 3 of the largest furnaces in the country, the product of which is about 4,000 cast iron, each, per annum.

The trade, at present, is in a very flourishing condition; and this year, no doubt, there will be a considerable addition to the yield, in the great seat of this manufacture. We have taken great pains to arrive at an approximate enumeration of the iron works now in that state, and the annual quantity of iron producing from each, and we now give the result: 235 furnaces, yielding 211,500 tons pig iron; 187 forges, rolling and slitting-mills, bloomeries, &c., converting the above pig iron into 105,000 tons bar, bloom, boiler sheet, nail, nail plate, rod iron, &c.; and the rapid increment of these works is very perceptible, as by the governor's message it appears there were transported, by the several state lines of improvement, for the fiscal year, ending Nov. 30, 1844, 71,406 tons iron; against the same time, 1843, 38,022 tons. In 1843, however, there was not much activity in the iron trade. A more particular account of the iron works in Pennsylvania, appeared in the Philadephia Commercial List, for the year 1841, the sum of which is, that there were then 210 furnaces, and 170 forges, rolling-mills, &c., and 7 foundries, which produced 4,580 tons castings, 300 tons iron, (description unknown,) 103,450 tons pig iron, and 70,040 tons bar and bloom iron.

It has been well observed that, "of all the metallurgic arts, that by which iron is prepared from the ores, demanded the greatest degree of practical skill, and is the most difficult to bring to perfection; although ages have elapsed since it first became an object of human industry, its manipulation and preparation are yet receiving improvements, whilst those of other ancient metals seem hardly susceptible of modification or advancement. Copper, and its alloys, tin, lead, and mercury, were as well known, and as cheaply prepared, by the ancients, as by the moderns."

This is strikingly illustrated by a recent surprising discovery in the conversion of cast into malleable iron. The difficulty the iron-master has hitherto had to contend with, has been the extirpation of the carbon, and other noxious elements, associated in the metal. At Codner Park, in Derbyshire, are works, on Mr. Wall's patent, now in successful operation, which is on the principle, that when a compound is subjected to an electrical current, its negative and positive elements are detached from each other. Iron is electro positive—the elements it contains when crude—the carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, arsenic, oxygen, and silicon, are electro negative. By the application of a stream of electricity to the iron, in a state of fusion, when in the furnace, these impurities are dislodged, and bars, of the purest metal, and strongest fibre, can be at once drawn out, without any re-heating, piling, or fagoting, thereby effecting a saving of from $5 to $10 per ton. This new and ingenious process has not yet found its way to the United States.

From all the information we can obtain, we believe the following to be nearly a correct statement of the whole product of the United States:—540 blast furnaces, yielding 486,000 tons pig iron; 954 bloomeries, forges, rolling and slitting-mills, &c., yielding 291,600 tons bar, hoop, and sheet boiler, and other wrought iron, 30,000 tons blooms, and 121,500 tons castings, such as machinery and stove plates, hollow-ware, &c., which, at their present market value, would stand thus:—

291,600 tons wrought iron, at $80 per ton,.....		$23,328,000
121,500 " castings, at $75 per ton,.....		9,112,500
30,000 " bloomery iron, at $50 per ton,.....		1,500,000
To which must be added the quantity imported, say—		
46,000 tons bar iron, rolled, at $60 per ton,.....		2,760,000
17,500 " " hammered, at $80 per ton,.....		1,400,000
26,050 " pig iron, converted into castings, at $75 per ton,.....		1,953,750
5,570 " scrap iron, at $35 per ton,.....		201,950
4,157 " sheet hoop, &c., at $130 per ton,.....		540,410
2,800 " steel, at $335 per ton,.....		938,000
102,277 tons.		
443,100 "		
545,377 tons.	Consumption,.....	$41,734,610

So that the consumption of iron in the United States, in nearly the crude state, approximates $42,000,000 per annum, nearly equal to the whole value of raw cotton produced in the United States at present prices. We are rapidly outstripping the continental countries in the growth of this great sinew of national power, for, according to Mr. Virlet, France, Sweden, Russia, and all the civilized powers on the continent, only produce about 700,000 tons per annum.

To follow out the uses to which iron and steel are applied, in their transformation to machines, implements, tools, &c., in their variety of shapes, or the multiplied value they assume, under the hands of the machanic and manufacturer, would be a difficult task. The articles into which they are converted are as various as the wants and occupation of man. Without them, the soldier would be harmless, the artizan useless, the farmer pursuing a fruitless avocation, and a nation destitute of independence. It is important, therefore, that a commodity of such great necessity, and universal use, should be abundant and cheap. The present duties, on the quantity imported, which has averaged about 100,000 tons per annum, for five years, excluding 1843, amount to from 50 to 150 per ct. on the first cost; and it is evident that so large a proportion of the consumption would not be taken from abroad, if our domestic iron-masters were prepared to supply the demand. Under these circumstances, we consider such exorbitant imposts, onerous and impolitic. For, whether it be true or not, that the higher the duty the higher the price, it is certainly true, the lower the duty the lower the price, where the domestic and foreign articles come fairly into competition. The effect of a moderate reduction would be, to compel the domestic manufacturer of iron to accede to lower terms, in order to rival in sales the foreign article, and the consumer would be benefited. The present price of American bars is, from $75 to $80 per ton. We know they can be laid down here for $57 50, and the rapid increase in the number of works, in Pennsylvania, is ample testimony to the remunerative character of the business.

The consumption will increase with the diminution of price; and now that the appropriations of this metal are becoming more multiform, it is unwise to keep it up to a fictitious level, by exclusive legislation. It is not only being used in the construction of houses in England, but extensively in ship building, steam frigates, and the commercial marine, made of this material, are preferred for their durability, lightness of draft, and economy. There is one steamboat building in New York, we understand,

for the North River, of iron; and when she has performed a few trips, we predict that not many more will be made of wood.

What would tend more, however, perhaps, than any other circumstance to make iron cheaper, and extend the consumption of both domestic and foreign, would be the increase of facility in communication with the interior by railroads. M. de Villefosse properly remarks: "What they call, in France, the question of the price of iron, is, properly speaking, the question of the price of wood, and the question of the means of interior communications by means of roads, streams, rivers and canals." The cheap and rapid communication of railways, is what so bulky an article requires; and the only point to consider is, whether it would be more advantageous to wait until this country can make it, or import it from Great Britain. The manufacture of the heavy-edge rail, calls for such a large outlay of capital, so much more experience and manipulation, than any other species of fabrication, that it would retard the progress of the country too seriously, we apprehend, to stand still till the bantling attained maturity.

It has been stated that the heavy-edge rail can be made here, in Maryland, for $60 per ton, which is about the cost of bars laid down at the seaboard. It appears, from English invoices, the heavy T rail has always cost $7 25 per ton more than the common bar, and that, too, where the manufacture is brought to perfection.

Years.	Av. price of merch. bar, per ton.	Av. price of rails, p. ton.	Years.	Av. price of merch. bar, per ton.	Av. price of rails, p. ton.
1831,.....	£5 5	£6 17 6	1838,.....	£8 15	£10 10 0
1832,.....	5 0	6 15 0	1839,.....	9 0	10 10 0
1833,.....	6 0	7 10 0	1840,.....	8 0	9 12 6
1834,.....	6 10	8 0 0	1841,.....	6 10	8 0 0
1835,.....	5 15	7 10 0	1842,.....	6 00	7 15 0
1836,.....	10 0	11 15 0	1843,.....	5 00	6 10 0
1837,.....	8 15	10 0 0			

We cannot, therefore, understand how it can be made near the price of common bars here. In consequence of the great demand for railways, in Great Britain and the Continent, the price, in England, now, of the T rail is £7 10 per ton, or $36 per ton, to which add $8 for freight, insurance, commission, &c., makes the cost of importation $44 per ton.

As the edge rail will replace the flat bar, in this country, on 2,500 miles, or say 250,000 tons, the difference between $44 and $70, the present price, is $6,500,000. The sum the country would save, if the present duty of $25 per ton were abolished.

The importation of 90,000 tons of bar and pig iron per annum, (comparatively crude articles,) shows that the country is not yet prepared for the manufacture of the more complicated and expensive edge rail; and, at present, until the avenues of transit have placed the existing works in more complete communication with the various markets, we think a high duty on rails highly inexpedient; besides, the railroads would not only facilitate the progress of the manufacture, by placing the ore, the fuel, and the flux, the furnace, the forge, and the rolling-mill, now in many sections of the country, at some distance from each other, by giving between each a cheaper and easier communication, but they would furnish considerable employment in the making of locomotives, cars, and all kinds of work connected with railways. Many of the richest portions of

the Union remain undeveloped for want of the means of transportation. Professor Shephard, of Yale College, says, that in many parts of Missouri the iron ore is so devoid of foreign materials, as scarcely to require the preliminary process of roasting, to dissipate the volatile ingredients, or the subsequent addition of large doses of flux, to effect the withdrawal of other impurities; and, that a mountain exists there, whose circuit is two miles, and whose elevation is 350 feet, consisting of specular iron, so pure that only a few solitary crystals of feldspar can be discovered, which would yield 70 per cent of pure iron, and the region is amply supplied with charcoal.

Unlike the precious metals, which, when once separated from the ore, cease to contribute to the productive industry of the country, iron, through its various transformations, from the ore to the finished utensil, acquires an accession of value, calls for additional mechanical labor, and gives occupation and reward to different avocations. This dormant treasure lies imbedded to an inexhaustible amount, through a vastly extended region; and we will take a rapid glance at its richness and variety. The most valuable—the magnetic oxide of iron—characterises the stratified primary rocks of New England, and is prolonged across New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, to a remarkable degree. It occurs abundantly at Winchester and Franconia, in New Hampshire; at Cumberland, Rhode Island, whence it is taken to Massachusetts to be smelted; at Somerset, in a range of talc slate, twenty miles north of Massachusetts; at Hawles and Bernardstown, in Massachusetts. In New York, it occurs in the northern primary district in abundance, especially near the valley of Ausable river. In the Highlands, and in the neighborhood of Ringwood, thick beds, averaging ten feet of solid ore, are seen—in Morris county, New Jersey, near Succasunny, and at intervals as far as the Delaware river, and on the northern side of Berks and Lancaster counties, Pennsylvania. Its average thickness is from five to twelve feet, and it yields 65 per cent of metallic iron.

In Pennsylvania, where the various ores are profusely distributed, besides the magnetic or oxydulated iron ore, the brown and yellowish argillaceous or hematite ore is found principally along the borders of the lime-stone valleys, containing from 45 to 55 per cent of metallic iron; the fosseliferous ore, from the variegated shale formation, containing from 40 to 60 per cent of metallic iron; and the ore of the coal region, similar in character to the clay iron-stone of England and Wales, yielding from 30 to 50 per cent of metallic iron, and is highly useful from its general dissemination through those districts where the other ores are not encountered.

Here is a vast field for future operations; and no means would tend more efficiently to develop its teeming resources than the construction of railways. Railways would not only cheapen the manufactured article by affording a quick and economical vehicle of conveyance, but open new markets to the iron-master, and widen consumption. From the difficulties of transit, the north and west branches of the Susquehanna, and of Clinton and Essex counties, New York, would consider $60 per ton for bars a poor compensation, but with railways would be able to compete more successfully with foreign supplies. The rolling-mill at Mount Savage owes its existence to the Baltimore and Ohio railway of imported iron. So that, independent of the considerations attached to railways as

a means of national defence and a bond of union, the interests of the iron-manufacturer seem to demand the free admission of railroad iron. The two establishments now in existence for the manufacture of this branch, cannot possibly supply the demand that will exist for this method of locomotion and conveyance; for it appears that not only will 250,000 tons be required at once of heavy rails to replace the worn out flat rails, but 4,378 miles are undertaken for railroads, besides those already in use throughout the United States.

Agriculture, into which the consumption of iron so extensively enters, and which forms the preponderating interests of the country, has sacrificed much to support the protective policy, in the high prices created thereby. The price of most of the products of agriculture is at present depressed, and it would materially relieve its burdens if the duty were in some measure relaxed on all descriptions of iron; and we do not believe, under the existing profitable rates, any moderate reduction would injure a single manufactory within the influence of foreign importations. Besides, the quantity which comes in collision with foreign iron is but a minor proportion of our whole production. Of 300,000 tons wrought iron made in the United States, only one-third, or 100,000 tons is calculated to reach the seaboard; the other two-thirds, or 200,000 tons being despatched to the western markets.

In England the duty on bar iron, in 1826, was $7 25, on pigs $2 40, it is now $4 80 per ton on bars and $1 20 per ton on pigs; and their liberal policy exercised towards an article entering into such general consumption, is worthy of imitation. Whatever arguments might have been adduced in favor of protection, to bring into existence, and foster in its infancy, a manufacture, lose much of their cogency when that manufacture has attained maturity sufficient to compete with foreign products, which has surrounded itself with the capital and skill of an intelligent community, and summoned to its growth all the modern improvements of arts and science—as is the case here with common bar, hoop, sheet, and rod iron now.

We do not advocate any extravagant or sudden abatement of duties, but it is not just to the interests of the other states, nor the large consuming mass, that any particular branch of national industry should be protected beyond the requisitions of government, for efficient public service or what is necessary to counteract the regulations of foreign nations. In effecting any modification of the tariff, a due regard should be preserved to the manufacturers who have invested capital on the faith of a continuance of a protective policy, and who cannot sustain themselves at first without it; but it is expecting too much from the people to suppose that they will submit to a perpetuity of the system, when the temporary and incidental protection has enabled the domestic to vie with the foreign manufacturer in his own market, and the revenue raised by this means is no longer necessary for the administration. The effect of this abatement would be that the manufacturer would be obliged to reduce his profits in the price lest he should be undersold by the foreign article; and the consumer would reap the benefit of the competition.

We now subjoin the table before alluded to:—

IMPORT OF IRON AND STEEL INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1828-29, TO 1843-44, INCLUSIVE, ENDING ON THE 30TH SEPTEMBER OF EACH YEAR.

ARTICLES.	1828–29.		1829–30.		1830–31.		1831–32.		1832–33.		1833–34.		1834–35.		1835–36.	
	Tons	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.
Bar and bolt iron, rolled,	3,320	$119,326	6,449	$226,336	17,245	$544,664	20,387	$701,549	28,028	$1,002,750	28,896	$1,187,236	28,410	$1,050,152	46,675	$2,131,828
Bar and bolt iron, hammered, or otherwise manufactured,	29,489	1,884,069	30,693	1,730,375	23,308	1,260,166	38,150	1,929,493	36,124	1,837,473	31,784	1,742,883	31,524	1,641,359	32,987	1,891,214
Pig iron,	1,138	28 811	1,129	25,664	6,418	160,681	10,151	222,303	9,330	217,668	11,113	270,325	12,295	289,779	8,541	272,978
Hoop and sheet iron,	1,089	89,057	1,038	59,822	2,532	151,900	2,853	182,559	3,350	245,848	2,214	190,237	2,009	133,639	3,643	325,676
Brazier's rods, 3 16 a 8 16, inclusive,	75	6,164	97	5,945	217	13.660	233	13,727	221	12,834	132	10,017	113	7,428	240	21.764
Nail and spike rods, slit,	3	234	14	784	101	4,535	56	2,063	95	6,080	¾	77	1¼	244	10	1,301
Band, scroll, or casement rods, slit or hammered,	—	——	1¼	81	10	72	3	176	12	2,063	3	230	1-20	5	1-8	5
Old or scrap iron,	.	——	—	—	—	—	—	——	998	24,035	1,617	33,243	640	10,600	1,846	28,224
Total iron,	35,114	$2,127.661	39,421	2,049,007	49,861	$2,135,728	71,833	3,051,870	78,158	3,348,751	75,759	3,434,248	74.992	3,133,215	93.342	4,672,990
Steel,	1 200	289,931	1,223	291,957	1.710	399,635	2,146	645,510	2,131	523,116	2,431	554,150	2,605	576,888	2,878	686,141
Tot. 1 on and steel,	36.314	$2.417.592	40.644	$2,340.964	51.571	$2 535 363	73 979	$3.697,380	80.289	$3.871,867	78,190	$3,988,398	77,597	$3,710,103	96.220	$5,359.131

IMPORT OF IRON AND STEEL INTO THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

ARTICLES.	1836–37.		1837–38.		1838–39.		1839–10.		1840–41.		1841–42.		1842–43.		1843–44.*	
	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.	Tons.	Exp. val.
Bar and bolt iron, rolled,	47,839	$2,573,367	36,174	$1,825,121	60,285	$3,181,189	32,825	$1,707,650	63,055	$2,172,278	61,600	$2,053,453	20,230	$637,617	46,000	$1,925,121
Bar and bolt iron, hammered, or otherwise manufactured,	31,325	2,017.346	21 319	1,166,196	35.557	2,054,094	28,819	1,689,831	29.605	1,614,420	19,512	1,041,410	8,440	450,317	17,500	855,220
Pig iron,	14,128	422,929	12.192	319,009	12.507	285,300	5,516	114,562	12.267	223,288	16,694	295,284	6,472	76 858	26 050	349,600
Hoop and sheet iron,	5,041	504,473	2,536	218,192	3,309	354,933	2,469	235,809	3,646	376,075	3,560	296,679	1,522	154,638	3,600	280,360
Brazier's rods, 3-16 a 8 16, inclusive,	901	21,792	142	10,648	381	27,942	193	47,792	164	12,843	530	37,767	212	15,360	470	10,648
Nail and spike rods, slit,	½	32	1¼	94	36	2,291	½	24	13¼	613	18	860	10	730	27	1,890
Band, scroll, or casement rods, slit or hammered,	¼	36	53	2,712	15	886	15	963	15	1,161	22	1,023	16	1.612	60	6.500
Old or scrap iron,	706	18,391	436	7,567	589	10,161	707	15,749	783	10,537	685	8,207	169	4,424	5,770	152.160
Total iron,	99.300	5,558.306	72,855	$3,549 620	112,679	5,916,787	70,544	3,812.370	109,548	4,411,215	104,621	3,734,683	37,071	1.341,565	99 477	3,481,499
Steel,	3,506	804,817	1.907	487,334	2,958	771,809	2,225	528,716	2,563	609,201	2,771	597.317	1,334	324.086	2,800	487,334
Total iron and steel,	102 806	$6.363,183	74.762	$4.036,963	115.637	$6.688,596	72,769	$4.341,086	112.111	$5,020,416	107,392	$4.332,000	38,405	$1,665,651	102,277	$3,968,833

* The last quarter of 1844 only estimated in part.

Art. III.—RESOURCES OF PENNSYLVANIA.*

The native resources of Pennsylvania, are, doubtless, more abundant than those of any other state in the Union. With a territorial domain embracing forty-seven thousand square miles, it possesses extraordinary advantages for the successful prosecution of agriculture, mining, manufactures, commerce, and the mechanic arts. Its fertile soil stretches out a broad expanse, from the banks of the Delaware, westward, to the shore of Lake Erie, and the Ohio, and is eminently productive of those crops which are yielded in the northern and the western states. Its hill sides contain inexhaustible beds of coal and iron, lying in those precise positions where they are most required, and which are slid down almost into the very yards where they are worked up for manufacturing purposes. Quaries of the purest white marble are found in the vicinity of its prominent cities, and are used for the adornment of their principle edifices and streets. Upon its eastern side, it possesses the first city in architectural elegance, and the second in population, of the nation; its interior supports the most considerable inland town, and, upon its extreme western point, Pittsburgh echoes with the sound of the hammer, and blackens the sky with a hundred forges, like a city of the Cyclops. In mining, it stands the first in the nation, yielding much the greater portion of mineral products; it produces one-sixth part of the grain, and in manufactures, it stands the third. The most populous portion of its surface is traversed by railways, canals, and costly turnpike roads. Its exports find their way, by water, upon three sides, namely: through the chain of the northwestern lakes, by the way of Erie, down the Mississippi, through the Ohio, and by the Delaware, either coastwise, or to foreign ports, by the sea. Its wide surface exhibits the picturesque contrast of the cultivated farm and the winding river, the smiling village and the dense forest, the calm valley and the blue mountain; and it, moreover, possesses a population of about eighteen hundred thousand, consisting of some of the most enterprising, industrious, and moral of our countrymen. It is our object, in the present paper, to exhibit, in a compendious form, the resources of this great state, so far as they appear, from published statistical data, and oral information, as well as from a sojourn in the counties of the interior.

In the southeastern portion of the state, the surface of the soil is varied and undulating, although not hilly; and, indeed, but few extensive level tracts are found within its boundary. Occasional ridges of trap rock may be descried here, but the South Mountain, extending to the Maryland line, is the first range of any considerable altitude in this section; and, next to this, the Blue mountain stretches its long and level crest line of summit, to the height of about twelve hundred feet. The anthracite coal is found in the mountainous region, between the Lehigh and Susquehanna, and north of the Blue mountain. High ridges extend along, east of the Susquehanna; and the valley of Wyoming, so famed for its picturesque beauty and historic interest, courses through the territory, bordered by a lofty chain of mountains. The chain, running through the Blue and the Alleghany, is denominated the Appalachian chain, and possesses between

* For a full and elaborate article, on the "Trade and Commerce of Pennsylvania," see Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1844, vol. x., no. iv., page 308 to 326.—[*Ed. Merchants' Magazine.*

them, valleys sometimes twenty miles in breadth. West of the Susquehanna, are numerous other mountains, whose names we shall not designate. The Alleghany extends across nearly the whole state, and is first perceptible upon the north branch of the Susquehanna, thirty miles above Wilkesbarre, it then ranges westward, through the county of Luzerne, although, at this point, called by a different name, and inclining to the southwest, it enters the state of Maryland. West of the Alleghany, is a high ridge, that all who have crossed these mountains must have noticed, termed Laurel Hills, and, still beyond, is Chesnut ridge. That portion of the state, lying west of the Alleghany mountains, is hilly, and the whole region is intersected by deep channels and valleys, bordered by rugged hill sides, which appear to have been worn by the action of the water, and it is not unusual to perceive a coal seam, high up on the rocky steep, with its counter part upon the other side, thus indicating the wearing of that element.

The surface of the state is watered by streams which fertilize the soil, while they adorn the scenery with innumerable picturesque prospects. The most prominent of those rivers are, the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Ohio, and, through their channels, the waters of every spring and brook, within its bounds, find their way to the ocean. The former of those rivers rise in the state of New York, and, flowing southeastward, and thence southwestward between Pennsylvania and New Jersey, passes through the Blue mountain at the Delaware water-gap, where it exhibits a panorama of sublime and beautiful scenery. Here the mountain rises, on each side, about twelve hundred feet, and rugged precipices rear their summits from the edge of the river, while the prominent peaks command a view of the wooded hills and cultivated valleys, not only of Pennsylvania, but also of the adjoining state of New Jersey; and the silver Delaware winds its way through the landscape as far as the eye can reach. The next river to which we have alluded, and the largest in the state, is the Susquehanna, which fertilizes tracts rich in natural beauty, and empties into the Chesapeake bay, below Havre de Grace. The breadth of this river, varies from a mile to a quarter of a mile, its shores present rich tracts of scenery, its bosom is diversified by numerous beautiful little islets, while the navigation is obstructed by rocky rapids, excepting at high water. During those periods, large quantities of lumber descend in rafts, besides numerous "arks," laden with grain, flour, iron, and other products of the interior. The portion of the state, west of the Alleghany mountains, is drained by the Ohio, the two main branches of which, the Alleghany and the Monongahela form a junction, at the thriving manufacturing settlement, to which we have before alluded, the city of Pittsburgh, where it constitutes a most valuable channel of exportation.

The valleys and hill sides of Pennsylvania are very fertile, and, indeed, the greater portion of the soil is productive. Although the limestone valleys yield the most abundantly, yet, the entire surface of the settled portion, presents wide expanses of cultivated fields, which yield adequate returns to the labor of the husbandman. Agriculture is prosecuted here upon a large scale, and with a success that is not exceeded by that of any other portion of the country. While, as has been before remarked, the greater portion of the soil is fertile, those tracts, less favored by nature, are tilled by the farmers, with equal profit, by the application of skill and industry, and barren plains and hill sides have been converted into luxu-

riant fields of the grapes and the grains. In the older and more settled portions of the state, the use of lime, and other approved means of fertilization, as well as improved implements of husbandry, among which the plough holds the most important place, together with the proper rotation of crops, have advanced Pennsylvania to the first rank, as an agricultural state. Here the traveller, in a journey through the interior, beholds, in the abundant harvests, in the neat and substantial appearance of the farm-houses, in the well constructed fences, and in the large barns, either entirely, or in part, built of stone, some of which are from sixty to one hundred and twenty feet in length, and provided with all the appliances of stables, threshing-floors, and granaries, the most undoubted evidences of thrifty and profitable husbandry. A good degree of attention is, moreover, paid to stock: the breed of milch cattle has become much improved, as well as that of the sheep and swine. Horses have been, also, improved, but the enterprise of the farmers has been directed to those suited to the draft and the plough, rather than to the race-course, and no state exhibits more powerful animals, for that purpose, or of larger size. The farmers of this state, indeed, exhibit favorable examples of the benefits of agricultural enterprise. Owners, for the most part, of the soil which they cultivate, with all the means of necessary subsistence at hand, their profits, if not large, are certain, and they enjoy all that sober independence, free from vexatious and harassing cares, which naturally spring from rural life. We here subjoin a table, exhibiting the number and average value of the live stock of the state, according to an authoritative computation :—

Horses and mules,	365,129 at	$60 00	$21,907,740
Neat cattle,	1,172,665 at	15 00	17,589,975
Sheep,	1,767,620 at	2 50	4,419,050
Swine,	1,503,964 at	3 50	5,263,874
Poultry,	(estimated value,)		685,801

We also add a table of the principal agricultural products annually yielded by the soil :—

Wheat, ... bush.	13,213,077	Hay, ... tons	1,311,643
Rye, ...	6,613,873	Flax and hemp, ...	2,650
Indian corn, ...	14,240,022	Hops, ... lbs.	49,481
Oats, ...	20,641,819	Wax, ...	33,107
Buckwheat, ...	2,113,742	Tobacco, ...	325,018
Barley, ...	209,893	Silk cocoons, ...	7,262
Potatoes, ...	9,535,663	Sugar, ...	2,265,755
Wool, ... lbs.	3,048,564	Wine, ... galls.	14,328
Value of the products of the dairy, ...			$3,187,292
" " the orchard and gardens, ...			901,218

The population of a state may be considered a part of its resources; for it is they who give a direction to its industry, and mark the soil with the impression of their character, in the public and individual improvements. Pennsylvania derives its population from various sources, although the distinctive shades of character that distinguished the early emigrants, are fast melting away, under the influence of common interests, and frequent and friendly association. The shores of the Delaware, that were first colonized by the Swedes and Dutch, before the arrival of Wm. Penn, are now cultivated by their descendants; in the southeastern counties, which were first settled by the English followers of Penn, we now see their respectable successors, of the same race; and a small, but industrious body of emigrants, from Wales, planted themselves near the

Schuylkill, in the counties of Montgomery and Chester; Lancaster, Berks, and Northampton, were settled by the palatine Germans, who emigrated to this country about the year 1727, and settled upon some of the most fertile lands in that region. The population of the state, has, moreover, received some considerable accessions from Ireland. Many of the early settlers of that nation scattering themselves through the counties of Lancaster, York, and Cumberland, and as their numbers swelled by new accessions, they spread themselves westward, across the mountains. These several sorts of emigrants, although now presenting the distinctive characteristics of the nations from which they sprang, maintain friendly relations with each other, and are associated in ordinary enterprises relating to the common prosperity.

In order to exhibit the advance of population, throughout the state, we subjoin the following table, showing its increase from 1684 to 1840:—

Year.	Pop.	Year.	Pop.
1684,.....	7,000	1810,.....	810,091
1701,.....	20,000	1820,.....	1,049,313
1763,.....	280,000	1830,.....	1,347,672
1790,.....	434,000	1840,.....	1,724,033
1800,.....	602,545		

In presenting these few remarks respecting the population of Pennsylvania, we have alluded to that portion who are now settled in the interior of the state. There are, besides those that we have mentioned, a few emigrants from New England, scattered through Luzerne and the adjoining counties, and the large cities present a mingled mass of persons, from various quarters of the globe. In the city of Philadelphia, may be noticed, not only the plain and neat descendants of William Penn, and representatives from the other nations that we have enumerated, but emigrants of Spain and Italy, and the successors of many of the French Huguenots, protestants, who escaped from France during the religious persecutions of that country; so, also, a considerable number of the French, who left St. Domingo during the revolt of that island, in 1792, have made this city their permanent home, together with more recent emigrants from those nations.

We now direct our attention to the productions of its mines, for, in this respect, the state stands pre-eminent, and we will first examine its resources in coal and iron, those two most powerful agents of modern mechanical and commercial enterprise. The production, in great abundance, of mineral products, situated in convenient positions for use, have, naturally, caused the erection of numerous forges, in parts of the state where iron is wrought, and cast into various forms, and it has, also, furnished a stimulus for the industry of the interior, in mining, and in transporting its products to market. The quantity of limestone and marble, yielded by the quarries, is, also, of great value, not only in fertilizing the soil, and in furnishing facilities for mining, but also in supplying materials for the adornments of architecture.

There are two different species of coal in the state—the anthracite and the bituminous. Coal fields, possessing the same geological features, yet separated by rocky lines of elevation, contain the great bulk of the anthracite coal of Pennsylvania. There are some of them, in turn, divided into minor basins, bounded by the same sort of elevations, although smaller. The basins of coal, intermingled in strata, with slates, shales,

and sand-stone, appear generally in the form of a trough, shaped like a canoe; and the coal beds vary in thickness, from one foot to thirty, although they are sometimes found even fifty feet thick. It is found more productive, in mining, to work those beds that are from five to twelve feet thick, inasmuch as they are more accessible, while those that are of the depth of thirty or forty, must be worked in chambers, pillars of coal being left to support the roof. In the less thick beds, the whole mass may be taken out, and the roof can be supported by single props. The seams of coal are exposed, in many places, upon the walls of precipices, deep ravines, and the channels of streams, running through the hills.

The ordinary mode of mining coal is to run a tunnel, or drift, into the hill, to the coal bed, above the water level. This drift is wide enough to admit the passage of a railroad car, and also serves as a drain for the water of the mine. The bed is then worked upward toward the surface, the coal being thrown or slid down the drift. Here it is loaded in cars, and drawn to the mouth of the mine, and thence conveyed to the canal boats, in which it is transported. If the coal bed, above the drift, is exhausted, the miners then work the bed downward, below the water level, and the coal and water, from the mine, are raised by the agency of steam engines. It is not uncommon to find several coal beds in the same hill, some being separated only by a short distance, while others are several hundred feet apart.

The four mining districts, into which the southern coal field of Pennsylvania is divided, are the Lehigh, the Schuylkill, the Swatara, and the Susquehanna; and the former is owned by the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company. The summit mines, which are situated on a high ridge, at a place called the Mauch Chunk Landing, possess remarkable advantages for mining, which has long been extensively prosecuted here.. The coal bed, that is worked at this place, is somewhat extraordinary in its character, consisting of a mass, lying in a horizontal position, about fifty feet thick, and appearing to be constituted by the junction of numerous veins. This bed is worked by removing a mass of earth and loose stones, to the depth of about twenty feet, when the surface of the bed appears, and the coal is quarried, not in subterranean darkness, and by the glimmering of a lamp, but the light of day. North of these, beds of from five to thirty feet thick, have also been opened. From those mines, railroads have been constructed to the river, near Mauch Chunk, and immense quantities are carried to the Delaware canal, at Easton, whence they are transported to Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and other places, not only upon the coast, but also in the interior.

That portion of the southern coal field, lying upon the branches of the Schuylkill, is denominated the Schuylkill district, and it is very extensive, including the Tamqua, Little Schuylkill, Pottsville, Mine Hill, as well as other collieries, which transport their coal from the mines to the river, communicating with the Schuylkill navigation, or the Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville railroad. The greater portion of those mines is conducted by individual enterprise, while a few are held by mining companies, possessing special privileges. The coal, quarried in those several mines, is, moreover, various in quality, some being hard, and emitting intense heat, another species softer, burning more easily, and depositing red ashes, while there are other kinds, possessing qualities peculiar to themselves.

The Swatara coal district, lying upon the waters of that river, produces

coal, of less compactness, and burning more freely than some of the harder kinds, to which we have alluded; and that which is here mined, is sent from the vicinity of Pine Grove, through the channels of the Union Canal Company, either to the Susquehanna canal, or toward the Schuylkill. There are, also, extensive beds, varying from three to thirty feet in thickness, which, being broken by the passage of numerous streams through them, afford special facilities for mining, which are situated in the Sharp, Red, Coal, Little Lick, and Big Lick mountains.

The Susquehanna district embraces the western terminations of the southern coal field, branching out, in two divisions, toward the Susquehanna. The Southern, or Stony Creek coal region, contains valuable beds, which appear to possess a bituminous character, but no mining operations, of any importance, have been undertaken here, in consequence of the want of the means of transportation of its products to market. The Bear Valley coal beds, communicate with the Susquehanna, by a railroad to Millersburgh. Those mines have been long worked, and yielded coal of a good quality, although but a few of them have been opened, while preparations have been made for the opening of other beds as soon as the means of transportation shall be provided.

The middle coal field, constituted of many basins of minor size, embraces, on its eastern end, the mining districts of Beaver meadow and Hazleton, near the middle, the Mahanoy, and toward the western end, the Shamokin, the field being situated north of the Broad mountain. The quality of the coal, here mined, is similar to that of the southern coal field, some beds yielding white and others red ashes, and yet, various in quality, a portion being hard, shining, and compact, and emitting an intense heat, yet burning slowly, while, in other points, is produced a coal more brittle, lighter, less solid, and more easy of combustion. At Hazleton, Beaver meadow, and other mines in this vicinity, the collieries are worked by incorporated companies, which transport the products of their mines, by the agency of railroads, to the Delaware canal, through the Lehigh navigation. Mines are, also, opened in the Mahanoy district, near the Pottsville and Danville railroad, near Girardville; and, from that point the coal can be sent to the Schuylkill, and may soon be transported to the Susquehanna. A number of mines are also now in operation at Shamokin, which produce coal of various qualities, which is transported down the Susquehanna canal, as well to the towns upon the bank of the river, as to the city of Baltimore. But a small portion of the coal fields, in this vicinity, have, however, as yet been mined, from the want of the means of transportation of its products to market; and it is only when its wild and mountainous recesses shall have been penetrated by railroads and canals, that its value will be fully appreciated.

The northern, or Wyoming and Lackawana coal field, is about sixty miles in length, and from one to six in breadth, and is of equal extent with the others that have been described. Beds of coal, varying from one to thirty feet thick, which are exposed among the hills by deep channels and ravines, are worked, almost entirely, by individual enterprise. Collieries are carried on, with some considerable profit, in the vicinity of Wilkesbarre, as well as in Nanticoke and Plymouth, near the river. The Baltimore Company works a mine, three miles above Wilkesbarre, where a deep bed of coal has been opened, there being other beds in the valley where the coal is thirty-two feet thick. The coal field, to which we have

alluded, extends up the valley of the Lackawana to Carbondale. Here are carried on the mines belonging to the Hudson and Delaware Canal Company, who convey no coal excepting that which is mined by themselves, and which transports annually large quantities to markets in New York, Albany, and other places, by their own railroad and canal to Rondout, upon the Hudson river. The northern coal field also presents marked advantages over the middle and southern, in the circumstance that, while the latter possesses only a thin and sterile soil, this spreads out a fertile agricultural valley, whose surface may be enriched by the most luxuriant crops, while its subterranean recesses pour forth from below its mineral products, and furnish exhaustless storehouses of wealth, illumined only by the glimmering and solitary lamp of the miner.

It has been estimated that these three fields of anthracite coal embrace about 975 square miles; and as each cubic yard of coal in the ground yields a ton when mined, we can hardly estimate the enormous quantity of this useful product which is embeded in the soil. The actual amount of coal recently mined may be ascertained from statistical data. It appears that the coal trade is yet in its infancy; for in 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market; in 1830, 174,737 tons; and in 1840, 865,414. The quantity produced from each of the mining districts during each year, now exceeds 1,000,000 tons, more than 800,000 of which are conveyed to other states. The following table, showing the amount produced in 1841 and 1842, we here subjoin:*—

COAL PRODUCED.

	1841.	1842.
Lehigh, Beaver Meadow, &c., ...tons	142,821	272,126
Schuylkill,.....	584,692	540,892
Swatara,.....	17,653	32,391
Lyken Valley,.....	4,379	4,864
Shamokin,.....	21,463	10,000
Wyoming,.....	53,315	47,346
Lackawana,.....	192,270	205,253
Total,.....tons	1,016,593	1,112,862

* We subjoin statements exhibiting the amount of the transportation of coal to the city of Philadelphia, down to the 12th of December, 1844; the amount transported from the Schuylkill and Lehigh districts, by the various tributary companies; and the total amount of the two districts, down to the same period.

The Schuylkill Canal Company have transported, up to Thursday, Dec. 12th, 279,465 tons; from Schuylkill Haven, 63,353; and from Port Clinton, 56,669; being a total of 399,487 tons for the past season, as per official report of the different collectors.

The Reading Railroad Company, up to Thursday, Dec. 12th, inclusive, have passed over the road the aggregate amount of 424,075.03 tons.

These are the two great arteries of communication from the Schuylkill coal region to this city, through which medium 823,562.03 tons have found their way to tide-water, from January 1st to December 12th, 1844. Among the various tributary companies to the business of the Schuylkill region, we notice the transportation by the following companies, viz:—

	Tons.		Tons.
Mine Hill and Schuylkill Haven,.	324,688	Pine Grove, (last dates,).....	34,223
Mount Carbon railroad,.....	195,630	Swatara, "	16,447
Little Schuylkill railroad,.....	56,696		

The Schuylkill canal is closed for the season; but the Reading Company intend transporting through from Pottsville, as far as practicable, during the whole of the winter. If the Little Schuylkill Company's bridge be finished by the time anticipated, so as to enable their road to connect at Port Clinton, that company will also bring down coal, during the winter, from Tamaqua.

Anthracite Coal Trade.

The following table exhibits the quantity of anthracite coal sent to market from the different regions in Pennsylvania, from the commencement of the trade, in 1820, to 1844, inclusive, with the annual increase, consumption, &c.

	Schuylkill.			Lehigh.			Other Regions.						
Years.	Canal.	Railroad.	Total.	Total.	Pine Grove.	Shamokin.	Lackawana.	Wilkesbarre.	Aggregate.	Annual increase.	Consumption.	Unsold April 1.	Sold on canal.
1820,.....	.....	.....	.....	365	.....	.....	.....	.....	365	.....	.....	.....	.....
1821,.....	.....	.....	.....	1,073	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,073	708	.....	.....	.....
1822,.....	.....	.....	.....	2,240	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,240	1,167	.....	.....	.....
1823,.....	.....	.....	.....	5,523	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,623	3,588	.....	.....	.....
1824,.....	.....	.....	.....	9,451	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,541	3,718	.....	.....	.....
1825,.....	6,500	.....	6,500	28,393	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,593	25,352	.....	.....	.....
1826,.....	16,776	.....	16,776	31,280	.....	.....	.....	.....	48,047	13,154	.....	.....	3,154
1827,.....	31,360	.....	31,360	32,074	.....	.....	.....	.....	63,434	15,837	.....	.....	3,372
1828,.....	47,284	.....	47,284	39,232	.....	.....	.....	.....	77,516	14,082	.....	.....	3,332
1829,.....	79,973	.....	79,973	25,110	.....	.....	7,000	.....	112,088	34,567	.....	.....	5,321
1830,.....	89,984	.....	89,984	41,750	.....	.....	43,000	.....	174,734	62,651	.....	.....	6,150
1831,.....	81,853	.....	81,853	40,966	.....	.....	54,000	.....	176,520	2,086	177,000	.....	10,048
1832,.....	209,271	.....	209,271	70,000	.....	.....	84,600	.....	363,871	187,051	298,871	none.	13,429
1833,.....	252,971	.....	252,971	123,000	.....	.....	111,777	.....	487,748	123,877	434,986	65,000	19,429
1834,.....	226,692	.....	226,692	106,244	.....	.....	43,700	.....	376,636	Decrease.	415,186	117,762	18,571
1835,.....	339,508	.....	339,508	131,250	.....	.....	90,000	.....	560,758	184,122	635,935	70,212	17,863
1836,.....	432,045	.....	432,045	146,522	.....	.....	103,561	.....	682,428	121,670	632,428	4,035	21,749
1837,.....	523,152	.....	523,152	225,937	17,000	.....	115,387	.....	881,476	199,048	680,441	54,035	28,775
1838,.....	433,875	.....	433,874	214,211	13,000	.....	78,207	.....	739,293	Decrease.	788,968	255,070	30,390
1839,.....	442,608	.....	442,608	221,850	20,639	11,930	122,300	.....	819,327	80,034	867,000	205,395	28,924
1840,.....	452,291	.....	452,291	225,288	23,860	15,505	148,470	.....	865,444	46,087	973,136	157,692	41,223
1841,.....	584,692	.....	584,692	142,841	17,653	21,463	192,270	.....	958,899	93,485	958,899	100,000	40,584
1842,.....	491,602	49,290	540,872	272,129	32,381	10,000	205,253	47.346	1,108,001	149,102	1,158,001	100,000	34,619
1843,.....	447,058	230,237	677,295	267,734	22,905	10,000	227,605	58,000	1,263,539	155,538	1,213,537	50,000	60,000
1844,.....	398,443	441,491	839,934	377,821	34,916	13,087	251,005	114,906	1,631,669	368,130	.....	50,000	90,000
Total,.	5,587,930	721,018	6,308,948	2,773,654	185,354	81,985	1,875,435	220,252	11,445,628	.....	.....	.....	.....

In 1820, only 365 tons were sent to market. In 1830, the quantity had reached 174,737 tons; in 1840, 865,414; and in 1844, 1,631,699 tons. By this statement, it will be observed that the trade has nearly doubled within the last four years.

The other species of coal abounding in the state is the bituminous, the region of which is situated mainly west of the Alleghany mountains, its area in the limits of Pennsylvania having been estimated as extending a distance of 21,000 square miles. There bituminous coal fields are found, stretching through the hills in horizontal planes, or with occasional undulations, there being, according to a recent estimate, not less than ten separate beds of coal from three to ten feet thick, and most favorable for mining. Those who have journeyed through western Pennsylvania, as it has been our good fortune to do, could hardly fail to have noticed the approach to the bituminous coal region of that portion of the state. The numerous channels cut upon the mountain sides, the multiplication of manufacturing establishments of various sorts where coal is used as a propelling power, the numerous furnaces, rolling-mills, and iron-works, which there abound, the smoky atmosphere produced by innumerable fires, (for almost every man has vast quantities poured down from the hills to his very door, where it supplies the place of other fuel,) all evince the influence that has been produced by the cheapness and abundance of this simple mineral product. More than 8,000,000 bushels are consumed in the opulent city of Pittsburgh, and nearly the same quantity in the salt-works that are situated upon the neighboring streams; 2,000,000 bushels are supposed to be consumed in the city of Cincinnati, and the diminution of wood upon the western waters will, doubtless, greatly increase its consumption, both upon the Ohio and the Mississippi. The estimate is believed to be judicious, that 2,000,000 tons of bituminous coal are annually mined in Pennsylvania, 200,000 tons of which are conveyed down the Ohio, and nine-tenths consumed in the state, both for manufacturing and domestic purposes.

Another of the most prominent enterprises of Pennsylvania is the mining and manufacture of iron. It is, doubtless, well known that this is the great iron state of the Union, and its soil yields that most valuable metallic product in abundance. The iron ores which are scattered over its surface are various in quality. For example, the magnetic oxide of iron, found in the south mountain between the Delaware and Susquehanna, yields from 60 to 70 per cent metallic iron, while brown and yellowish argillaceous, or hermatite and pipe ores, which are extensively worked along the borders of most of the limestone valleys, contain from 45 to 60 per cent. The fossiliferous ore, that is excavated near Danville, in the county of Columbia, and in other places in Union, Juniate, Huntingdon, Bedford, and other parts of the state, contains from 40 to 60 per cent of metallic iron. The iron ores are also most extensively found in the anthracite and bituminous coal region, and of the same character with the clay iron-stone that is used for the manufacture of iron both in England and Wales. It yields from 30 to 50 per cent; and, from the fact that it is produced in very large quantities in those parts of the state where the other iron is not found, it has become highly prized. That species termed bog iron ore, is excavated in almost every county of the state, and its best species are found to yield from 40 to 55 per cent of metallic iron.

The great abundance of iron and coal, which are scattered throughout the soil of Pennsylvania, has naturally induced the construction of numerous iron-works; for, as before remarked, iron is one of the great staples of the state. Almost every county in the state possesses its furnaces, forges,

foundries, and smitheries, where iron is wrought from a crude state into bars and pigs, and moulded into steam engines, as well as the numerous smaller sorts of manufactured implements, such as scythes, nails, cutlery and the various kinds of utensils of husbandry. Is has, indeed, been estimated that the value of iron produced throughout the state, and the additional value given to it by its manufacture, amounts to $21,000,000 annually, and that there is consumed in this manufacture during each year about 188,000 tons of anthracite and bitumious coal. It has also been estimated, from authentic sources, that there are employed in the various branches of the manufacture of iron throughout the state 20,000 workmen, and that a population of 120,000 persons are here depending for their support upon the different departments of the iron business. A considerable portion of the iron that is used by the cupalo furnaces of Philadelphia, besides that which is produced by the state, is the iron of New Jersey and other states, while the rolling-mills of Pittsburgh work large quantities of blooms from Ohio, Kentucky, and Virginia. The exact quantity of iron mined and smelted throughout the state has been pretty accurately ascertained by returns made by the county commissioners to the secretary of the commonwealth in 1839, by which it appears that there were mined in 699 townships that made returns 334,151 tons, and adding to that number the remaining 361 townships, according to the same ratio of production, there is in the 213 furnaces of the state the following quantity produced :—

Iron ore mined in 699 townships,.....tons		334,151
Estimated for the remaining 361 townships,.....		172,573
Total,.....tons		506,724

It has been, moreover, estimated that the average amount of iron yielded by ore in the furnace is about 37 1-2 per cent, which produces one ton of metal to two and two-thirds of a ton of ore. To yield 190,000 tons of iron, which is the estimated annual product of the state, requires 506,666 tons of iron ore. In order to exhibit in a tabular form the amount of the iron-works throughout the state, independent of the manufacture of iron, and their influence upon the measure of its industry, we subjoin the following table, prepared by a committee appointed to obtain statistical reports of the iron interests of Pennsylvania :—

NUMBER AND PRODUCT OF THE IRON WORKS IN PENNSYLVANIA, IN 1842.

Product.		Tons.	Val. ton.	Aggregate.	Tot. val.	Hands emp'd.
22 rolling-mills, producing—						
Bar iron,.....		20,800	$85	$1,768,000	.....	.....
Boiler iron,.....		2,400	110	264,000	.....	.....
Sheet iron,.....		1,200	130	156,000	.....	.....
Nails,.....		8,960	110	985,660	.....	.....
Nail-plate iron,.....		2,400	90	216,000	$3,389,600	1,678
54 forges, producing—						
Blooms,.....tons	17,725	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
Less—ded'ct bl'ms manuf. into boiler, sheet,		.....	...	.....	.....	.....
nails, nail-plate,.....	14,960	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
		2,765	60	165,900	.....	.....
Hammered bar,.....		4,105	90	369,450	535,350	1,666
99 furnaces, producing—						
Castings,.....		4,580	65	297,700	.....	.....
Pig iron,.....tons	80,305	.....	...	.....	.....	.....

Less—ded't 42,620 tns. bar iron and blooms manuf'd from pigs, allowing 25 cwt. pigs to the ton, is.....	53,287	27,018	30	810,540	1,108,240	5,063
7 foundries, producing—		300	90	.....	27,000	31
172 works—total pig iron,.....		74,528			5,060,190	8,438
131 fur., est. produce,...tons	109,695	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
Less—deduct manuf'd into bars and blooms,	32,262	76,433	30	Pig iron	2,292,990	6,856
84 forges, rolling-mills, &c., estimated to produce.....		27,410	75	Bar and bloom.	2,055,750	1,370
387 works in Penn'a., producing.....		178,371			9,408,930	16,664

We give below a statement derived from the official report of the canal commissioners of Pennsylvania :—

Statement showing the quantity of Iron, of every description, shipped at the following offices, in the years 1843 *and* 1844, *and the increase or decrease at each office.*

Collector's office.	No. lbs. of iron shipped in 1843.	No. lbs. of iron shipped in 1844.	Increase.	Decrease
Philadelphia,.....	1,375,595	1,742,741	367,146	.....
Paoli,.....	4,024,289	6,932,681	2,908,392	.....
Parkesburg,.....	602,384	1,359,932	757,548	.....
Lancaster,.....	2,033,439	2,680,103	646,664	.....
Columbia,.....	745,932	7,000,081	6,254,149	.....
Portsmouth,.....	1,246,620	8,363,212	7,086,592	.....
Harrisburgh,.....	6,679,601	10,167,781	3,488,180	.....
Newport,.....	992,816	1,468,982	476,166	.....
Lewistown,.....	4,493,622	5,429,925	936,303	.....
Huntingdon,.....	7,109,445	4,773,567	.....	2,335,878
Hollidaysburgh,.....	13,253,611	19,249,517	5,995,906	.....
*Johnstown,.....	... ..	7,958,000	.....	.....
Blairsville,.....	446,612	981,085	534,473	.....
Freeport,.....	7,600	60,500	52,900	.....
Pittsburgh,.....	3,873,137	3,425,008	.....	448,129
Berwick,.....	74,300	4,317,216	4,242,916	.....
Dunnsburgh,.....	5,354,575	8,016,863	2,662,288	.....
Williamsport,.....	302,066	443,790	141,724	.....
Northumberland,.....	12,146,737	22,445,040	10,298,303	.....
Liverpool,.....	149,863	405,119	255,256	.....
Junction,.....	1,742,964	1,876,116	133,152	.....
Bridgewater,.....	6,476,504	14,839,723	8,363,219	.....
Easton,.....	10,293,407	20,750,595	10,457,148	.....
New Hope,.....	215,250	84,404	.....	130,846
Bristol,.....	1,529,710	3,105,599	1,576,889	.....
Total lbs.,.....	85,170,119	157,948,580	67,635,314	2,914,853

Whole amount of toll received on iron of every description, transported on the several lines of improvement, during the fiscal year, ending November 30, 1844, $64,378 39.

We have alluded to the marble and limestone abounding in the state as rich sources of its mineral wealth, and we would first describe more particularly its marble. There are in the vicinity of Downington numerous quarries of white marble, from which large quantities have been transported from time to time to Philadelphia. Other quarries of white, dark, blue, and variegated marble, as well as that possessing various shades of color, have, moreover, been opened east of the Schuylkill

* No return from this office for 1843.

river, from which large masses have been transported to Philadelphia, and other cities in this quarter; and that species called Potomac marble, has been found in large quantities in various parts of the state. The abundance of this beautiful material for building and other architectural purposes, is a source of great wealth to the cities in the immediate vicinity of which the quarries are opened. It tends, in a greater degree than perhaps any other material, to supply the most elegant adornments to domestic architecture, and to contribute to the elegance of public edifices and streets, as well as all sorts of ornamental work.

Even of larger value than the marble which abounds in the state, is the quantity of limestone which is diffused through its greater part—constituting the most fertilizing element in the soil, it is employed in building bridges, houses, barns, canal locks, and other edifices. Burned into lime, it yields a most valuable mortar, which is used extensively in the plastering of houses, in white-washing, in the smelting of ores, and various other objects; but, more especially, in its use for agricultural purposes, it is of greater value than gold or silver mines; for a quarry of this mineral product, in the vicinity of the most barren land, will, with very little expense, cause it to be highly productive, and it has already become an important article of transportation in the interior. In the vicinity of the limestone quarries there is also found a rock producing hydraulic cement, and it has been pretty extensively used in the construction of canal locks. In addition to these products, are many kinds of potter's clay diffused throughout the state, and also those particular varieties used for the making of bricks. Slate quarries have also been opened somewhat extensively in that part of the state stretching along the southeastern side of the Blue mountain, and large quantities of roofing slate, and that which is employed in schools, is produced below the Delaware Water Gap, in the county of Northampton. To these mineral products may be added zinc, copper, and lead ores, which, however, have not been yielded in sufficient quantities to warrant their being worked.

It has been estimated that two-thirds of the entire surface of Pennsylvania are now covered with timber, and yet the productions of the forest constitute an inconsiderable item in the sum of its available worth. Among those productions, we may specify the quantity of fuel that is used for the numerous purposes required by a large population, both for manufacturing and domestic objects; the charcoal employed in the foundries, forges, furnaces, and smith-shops; the logs that are sawed into boards, shingles, and various sorts of lumber, both for building and mechanical objects; the wood for farming utensils; the lumber for ship and boat building, and those other implements required in manufactures and the machanic arts, the greater portion of which may be supplied by the Pennsylvanian forests. From 5,389 saw-mills, 400,000 feet of lumber are annually produced, and about $500,000 worth of shingles, staves, and unsawed timber, are annually sent to market.* Besides this amount, there is to be taken into the calculation a considerable quantity which is used for home consumption, and the timber that is employed for other objects. Among

* We deem it our duty to allude, in connection with the subject of the present article, to a work of which we have availed ourselves largely, the Geography of the State of Pennsylvania, by Mr. Charles B. Trego, which has recently been published. It is comprehensive, minute, and practical, and is the most satisfactory work of the kind that has been issued in this country; it may be considered in fact a model of this species of compilation.

the products of the forest of the state, may be mentioned, moreover, 2,000 barrels of tar, pitch, turpentine, and rosin; 300 tons of pot and pearl ashes; and about 2,000,000 pounds of maple sugar.

It has been remarked that Pennsylvania stands among the three first states of the Union in the amount of its manufactures. There is provided by nature, in its vast beds of coal and iron, as well as in the great extent of its water power, ample resources for manufacturing enterprise. It is estimated, indeed, that upon the Susquehanna and its hundred branches, as well as upon the Delaware and the Schuylkill, and their tributaries, and the numerous streams that make up the Alleghany and Monongahela, there is a power of this sort capable of performing the labor of 400,000,000 men, without calculating the material embodied in its vast anthracite coal fields, and its 10,000 square miles of bituminous coal lands.

The operations of the various kinds of manufactures throughout the state, employ a great number of individuals, both in the interior and in the principal cities upon the borders; and we will first consider the amount of the manufacture of iron. The largest amount of iron produced is in the counties of Northampton, Lehigh, Berks, Lancaster, York, Cumberland, Franklin, Bedford, Huntingdon, Centre, Columbia, Armstrong, Clarion, and Venango, although, in other counties, a considerable quantity of this metal is yielded from furnaces and forges. There are air and cupola furnaces, rolling mills, steam engine factories, nail factories, scythe and sickle factories, axe and edge tool factories, cutlery factories, factories for shovels, spades, and forks; gun factories, car, carriage, and waggon factories, plough factories, and sheet-iron factories. We here annex, from the journal of the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania, a table, exhibiting the annual value of the manufactures of iron, based upon the amount produced in 1842:—*

MANUFACTURES OF IRON.

87,244 tons made into bars, additional value,		$3,489,760
71,000 tons castings,	"	5,000,000
45,000 tons rolled iron,	"	1,937,339
Iron in 270 steam-engines,	"	700,000
7,017 tons nails,	"	253,110
Scythes and sickles,	"	15,000
Edge tools,	"	110,000
Cutlery,	"	25,000
Shovels, spades, and forks,	"	30,000
Guns,	"	185,074
Cars, and other vehicles,	"	900,000
Ploughs, iron,	"	107,000
Sheet iron manufactures,	"	100,000
Articles made by blacksmiths,	"	5,000,000
Total,		$21,254,133

According to the census of 1840, Pennsylvania had 213 furnaces for the manufacture of pig iron and castings, which produced 100,000 tons; 169 forges, bloomeries, and rolling mills, which annually manufactured 87,254 tons of bar, rod, sheet, and boiler iron, and nail plates. The capital invested in iron works is about eight millions, employing twelve thou-

* We have derived much valuable information respecting the coal and iron interests of Pennsylvania, from a semi-monthly magazine, devoted to the coal, iron manufactory, and agricultural interests of Pennsylvania, edited by Henry R. Strong, Esq., and published in Harrisburgh in 1842. The work has, we believe, been discontinued.

sand persons, who, with their families, would number about one hundred thousand. It had 736 flour mills, manufacturing, annually, 1,193,405 barrels of flour; 2,554 grist mills, 5,389 saw mills, 166 oil mills; the total value of these several branches of manufacture being $9,424,955, giving employment to about eight thousand men, and about eight million dollars of capital. It had 105 cotton factories, forty establishments for the dying and printing of cottons; 235 woollen manufactories, producing woollen goods to the amount of $2,319,061 annually, and affording employment to about three thousand persons; besides a vast amount of capital invested in various other branches of manufactures, and producing manufactured articles, of various kinds, to a very great value. Indeed, the total amount invested in manufactures throughout the state, is returned at $31,815,105. In order to establish the total value of manufactured products throughout the state, we here subjoin a table derived from an authentic source :—

SUMMARY OF ALL ANNUAL PRODUCTS.

Value of	113,395 tons pig iron, at $30,	$3,401,850
"	additional, by various manufactures,	17,852,283
"	anthracite coal mined,	5,000,000
"	bituminous coal mined,	4,000,000
"	agricultural products,	126,620,617
"	manufactures, except iron,	43,151,843
	Annual products of the state,	$200,026,593

The state of Pennsylvania, possessing as it does, such vast resources in the agricultural and mineral treasures of her soil, has established a system of internal communication, in the improvement of navigable rivers, the construction of railroads, canals, turnpike roads and bridges, calculated, in a great degree, to develop them. It is doubted, indeed, whether the scale upon which the plan of internal improvement has been framed, is not much too large for its requirements and its present means. The plan of internal improvements early commenced, has been carried out to a considerable extent, and a chain of public works has been constructed, which, although attended with great expense, has contributed to the wealth of the state in a much greater degree than the amount of their cost. The expenditure of money upon those public works, has now involved the state in some pecuniary embarrassment, of which it will require a few years to relieve itself. The canals and railroads that have been built, connecting the most populous and productive parts of the state by convenient lines of transportation, have doubtless added vast value to the property of the state, and also to its trade. The long lines, extending from its eastern to its western boundaries, furnish the most important avenues through which the products of the west may be transported to eastern markets; and the cargoes of foreign goods received in eastern ports may be, in turn, sent to their most remote places of sale in the interior. Besides the construction of the larger works, by the state or by individuals, there have been numerous shorter lines of railroads and canals, connected with coal or iron mines, carried out by private enterprise, and we are writing within sight of long trains of its cars, composed of sections of canal boats, taken from the waters of the Susquehannah, divided into fragments, and despatched as cars to the city of Philadelphia upon the wheels of a railroad. But the particular in which the state ex-

cels all others of the Union, is in the number and excellence of its turnpike roads, which have been built by incorporated companies, and have produced great advantage, although they have, as yet, yielded but small dividends. Those roads are constructed of beds of broken stone about two feet thick, and in a convex form, in order that the water may drain off from their surface. They are so broad as to permit two or three carriages to travel abreast, and by their side is also laid out a summer road upon the natural surface of the ground, for the greater convenience of travellers during the dry summer weather. The elegance of the numerous bridges that are constructed upon those roads, and their value for solidity, symmetry, and permanence, have been topics of comment by all who have been conversant with the actual condition of the interior; and although they have been, so far, unproductive, in a pecuniary point of view, they have been of marked advantage to the public, by furnishing convenient and safe lines of transportation, both for passengers and merchandise. We here subjoin a summary, showing the aggregate length of the canals and railroads throughout the state.*

	Miles.		Miles.
Length of State Railroads,.....	118	Length of State Canals,.....	848
" Company Railroads,.....	602	" Company Canals,.....	432
" private railroads, to mines, &c.,.....	75	Total length of canals,.....	1,280
Total length of railroads,....	795		

From the view that we have taken of the resources of the state of Pennsylvania, it is evident that they must maintain a large amount of trade. The produce of its fields and its mines, its manufactures, and its workshops, possess the most convenient outlets through its canals, railroads, and navigable rivers, as well as from its close proximity to the markets of the north, the south, the east, and the west. The public works constructed across the state, find ample freights in the amount of business which is carried on; and while the great manufacturing city of Pittsburg is shipping from its hundred fires, manufactured articles of various sorts, made from glass and iron, down the Ohio and Mississippi, the mountain sides of the interior, in their abundance of coal, are supplying to the city of Philadelphia, by the coal trade, an amount of commerce which is worth three times as much as her foreign trade. In transporting this coal to New York, and other Atlantic ports, it is not unusual to perceive the arrival of one hundred vessels into that port during a single day. The mere transportation of this mineral product through the public works, is an item of no inconsiderable importance. With a view of showing the amount of the transportation upon the state canals, we subjoin the following table, exhibiting the amount of coal in tons of 2,240 pounds, which, during the year 1841, passed over the state canals this side of the Alleghany mountains, the tolls paid into the state treasury, and the estimate for 1842:—

* The receipts into the Pennsylvania state treasury, accruing from her public improvements, for the fiscal year, ending November 30, 1844, are as follows:—

Canal tolls,.....	$578,404 4
Railroad tolls,.....	252,854 6
Motive power,.....	319,590 0
Trucks,.....	13,476 6
Total,.....	$1,164,325 8
For the year ending Nov. 30, 1843,.....	1,019,401 1
Increase,.....	$144,924 6

COAL TRANSPORTED ON THE STATE CANALS.

Mining Districts.	1841.		1842, (estimated.)	
	Tons.	Tolls.	Tons.	Tolls.
Wyoming,	53,315	$33,804	90,000	$65,000
Shamokin,	21,463	6,692	40,000	22,000
Swatara,	17,653	1,408	50,000	5,000
Lykens Valley,	4,908	1,014	6,000	2,000
Lehigh,	142,158	48,063	350,000	140,000
West Branch,	*8,115	3,597	30,000	20,000
Juniata,	17,314	12,836	25,000	21,000
Kiskiminetas,	1,467	287	2,000	400
Total,	266,393	$107,701	593,000	$275,400

* 2,122 tons used on the Philadelphia and Columbia railroad, and paid no toll.

In conclusion, with the subject of the coal trade upon the state canals, we would adduce other facts, bearing in a more practical manner upon this interest, for there is little doubt that its coal resources will, for a long time to come, attract to itself the industry and enterprise of its population. Although this trade is still in its infancy, yet the demand for that product is rapidly increasing, and will continue to increase with the advance of the nation. It is fast taking the place of wood for domestic purposes in the Atlantic cities, and in propelling the steamboats of the eastern waters. It is also supplying the place of other agents for propelling all sorts of machinery, as well as for the making of iron. But Pennsylvania alone does not possess this useful mineral. Virginia and Maryland own mines upon the Potomoc, and we perceive that in a lecture upon the geology of the United States, recently delivered by Mr. Lyell, the eminent geologist, he states that the Ohio coal field extends for a length of seven hundred miles, and that of Illinois embraces an extent of surface even larger than the whole of England. In those fields the coal is formed in workable beds, and, in one instance, there is a bed of coal forty feet thick, which comes up to the surface, and is quarried like stone. Although we possess such vast bodies of coal within our own soil, it has been found profitable for the British to import it in considerable quantity to this country. Hardly a month passes without the arrival of coal from England; but the circumstances, which would at first appear strange, require some explanation. The British coal mines, it may not be generally known, are upon the coast, and near the place of export, while the nearest anthracite mines of this republic are one hundred miles from the seaboard, and the nearest bituminous mines are nearly two hundred, so that the difference in the cost of transportation, together with the price of labor of our own, is nearly the same as the export of that article to us, the inferior cost of their own labor almost counteracting the duties. In order to show the relative amount of British coal imported into the United States from 1821 to 1842, inclusive, in tons of 2,240 pounds, and the amount of Pennsylvania anthracite sent from the mines to the cities upon the tide water, we subjoin a table, which will exhibit, in a condensed form, the comparative extent of the British import of that product.

The following comparative table, derived from the Miners' Journal, will show the quantity of coal imported into this country from 1821 to 1842, both years inclusive; also, the quantity of bituminous coal mined and shipped at Richmond, Virginia, and the anthracite coal trade of the United States for the same periods. The importation of foreign coal is official—from the Register of the Treasury:—

Year.	Foreign. *Tons.*	Virginia. *Tons.*	Penn'a. *Tons.*	Year.	Foreign. *Tons.*	Virginia. *Tons.*	Penn'a. *Tons.*
1821,.....	22,122	.....	1,073	1832,.....	72,987	117,878	363,871
1822,.....	34,523	48,214	2,240	1833,.....	92,432	142,587	487,748
1823,.....	30,433	39,255	5,823	1834,.....	91,626	110,714	376,636
1824,.....	27,228	59,857	9,541	1835,.....	49,969	96,428	560,758
1825,.....	25,645	59,571	34,893	1836,.....	108,432	110,714	682,428
1826,.....	35,605	79,144	48,047	1837,.....	152,450	100,000	881,476
1827,.....	40,257	75,643	63,434	1838,.....	129,083	96,428	739,293
1828,.....	32,302	89,357	77,516	1839,.....	181,551	85,714	819,327
1829,.....	45,393	83,357	112,083	1840,.....	162,867	78,571	865,414
1830,.....	58,136	91,785	174,734	1841,.....	155,394	71,071	958,899
1831,.....	36,509	93,143	176,520	1842,.....	103,247	68,750	1,108,001

The mining of coal will, in future time, when the exhaustion of the woodlands, and the increase of the population shall increase the demand, become a prominent enterprise of capital and industry. The construction of new railroads leading to valuable mines, the application of this material to new purposes, and the opening of additional markets, will greatly multiply the motives for working mines of this sort, as well as the demands for its product. There are various expenses connected with the working of collieries that are now not known to the public, and with a view to present these prominent facts in a compendious form, we annex the following table, procured from an authentic source, and relating to this subject in the state of Pennsylvania.

The following table exhibits the several items of expense of mining and transporting to market, a ton of 2,240 pounds of mineral coal, from those mining districts whose tonnage passes over any portion of the public works; and, also, the number of miles of railroads and canals from the several mines to market:*

	Anthracite.						Bituminous.		
	White Ash.			Red Ash.					
	Wyoming.	Lehigh.	Shamokin.	Swatara.	Swatara.	Lykens.	Juniata.	W'st Br'nch.	Mercer.
Miles of railroad,	2	9	20	8	5	16	12	—	—
" State canal,	148	60	84	17	17	55	174	155	90
" Tide canal,	45	..	45	45	45	45	45	45	..
" Union canal,	..	..	..	52	52	..	..	..	..
" Lehigh canal,	..	49½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total miles to market,	195	116½	149	122	119	116	231	200	90
Rent or interest on coal land,	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Opening veins, gangways, faults and buildings,	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Mining, timber, mine-wagons and tools,	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62
Hauling out, skreening, and loading cars,	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Transportation to the canal,	15	72	60	26	30	57	60	28	15
Transhipment and cost of land'gs,	..	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Depreciation from small coal and waste,	20	20	23	20	33	30	10	10	10
Toll on the State canal,	95	40	54	11	11	35	92	82	48
Freight on the State canal,	1 20	50	73	14	14	49	1 53	1 35	68
Toll on the Tide canal,	20	..	20	20	20	20	20	20	..
Freight on the Tide canal,	30	..	30	30	30	30	30	30	..
Toll on the Union canal,	..	..	..	40	40	..	..	..	..
Freight on the Union canal,	..	..	..	46	46	..	..	..	..
Extra for Union canal boat,	..	..	..	28	28	..	..	..	..
Toll on the Lehigh canal,	..	58	..	—	—	—	—	—	—
Freight on the Lehigh canal,	..	40	..	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cost of unloading boat,	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Cost of coal in market,	$4 74	$4 35	$4 50	$4 25	$4 22	$4 51	$5 45	$4 95	$3 00

* A considerable reduction on the prices of transportation of coal has, we understand, been made since this table was prepared.

We have thus gone through a compendious account of the resources of the state of Pennsylvania, and it is easily seen that they are enormous. It has been estimated that the great western bituminous coal fields of the state, contains three hundred thousand millions of tons; and when we look at the immense amount of the manufacturing interest, the extent of its iron works, and its wide surface of fertile soil, the existing and rapidly increasing amount of its agricultural products, it must be apparent that it is destined to a high career of prosperity. The present embarrassment in the financial affairs of Pennsylvania, so far as it induces increased taxation, is, to say least, at this time somewhat inconvenient. The state debt is now larger than that of any other state in the Union, amounting to $36,331,005, but it must be remembered that the value of this debt has been realized to the state, not only in the encouragement of the industry of its people, but also in the public works already constructed, adding to the value of property, and contributing to the public convenience to the full amount of their cost. The total value of the property of the commonwealth has been judiciously estimated at two billions one hundred millions of dollars, and with the resources at her command, there is but little doubt that she can, with the exercise of more economy and prudence, soon relieve herself from debt. Indeed, the increase of the population of the interior, each prominent iron mine and colliery furnishing a nucleus for a future village, will tend to aid that object. The position of the state is as extraordinary as its resources are opulent and its energies powerful. It occupies a central situation, a sort of truce ground between the north, the south, the east, and the west. No narrow local prejudices and national jealousies can here flourish. Its commercial ports touch the eastern waters as well as those of the great lakes, and the Ohio. Its territory stretches along the eastern frontier, and at the same time rests in the valley of the Mississippi. It spreads out in its western part, the primeval solitude of the forest, and on its eastern side, all the blandishments of metropolitan life. It exhibits the strong contrast of frontier habitudes and the most polished manners of the eastern cities. Its wilderness casts its mighty shades as shelters for the bear and the wolf, which it has done ever since the creation, while on the eastern border, Philadelphia, with its symmetrical squares, its magnificent edifices for public objects, its splendid piles erected for charitable purposes, its elegant shops and its numerous blocks of private mansions, bound in pure white marble, as if they had been chiseled from banks of snow, attest elegant taste and the benificent spirit of the second city in the Union in population. In the character of the people of the state, there are presented traits which afford an earnest of its future prosperity; although they are, in a considerable measure, derived from different nations, they maintain a harmony which is the mark of patriotism and the harbinger of good. They are prudent and industrious, and the means of improvement which have been elsewhere experienced have here worked out the most beneficial results. No true patriot, from any quarter of the Union, can regard the resources and prosperity of this great state with other feelings than those of honest exultation that it forms a part of his country.

Art. IV.—WHEATON'S LAW OF NATIONS.*

Mr. Wheaton, the American minister to the Court of Berlin, has recently introduced to the public a history of the law of nations, in Europe and America, from the earliest times to the treaty of Washington in 1842. It was originally written and published in the French language, as a memoir, in answer to a prize question, proposed by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in the Institute of France, but has been considerably enlarged, on rendering the work into the English language, as the author informs us in the preface.

The work appears in four parts, with an Introduction and Conclusion. The learned author is an American by birth and allegiance, and was educated at one of our universities; in early life pursued the profession of law in the city of New York; was connected with the judiciary of the United States, as a reporter of decisions, for a period of twelve years; and in the year 1827, appointed Charge des Affairs of the United States to the Court of Denmark; and thence has been transferred, by the government, as minister at the Court of Berlin, where he has continued to be the accredited representative of the United States to the present time. While Mr. Wheaton was reporter, he was a favorite of the profession, in our country, as well as of the tribunal which he attended, both as counsel and reporter; and his twelve volumes of reports bear ample testimony to his fidelity, legal learning, and general knowledge of historical and commercial law. Besides being a reporter to the highest judicial tribunal in America, he was selected as one of the revisers of the statutory code of the State of New York; and he entered, in the year 1825, upon the duties of this intricate enterprise, and continued as one of the revisers until he was sent abroad in a diplomatic character. The work before us is understood to have been mostly compiled since he left his native country, in his diplomatic employments; and it shows that he has been familiar with the state of various great questions of national law, which have arisen in Europe and America, while he has been a sojourner in foreign lands.

We regard Mr. Wheaton's work, as one which will shed a broad stream of light to the philanthropist and statesman, in their endeavors to calm the angry passions of nations and people, when excited to acts of hostility, either by love of power, feelings of revenge, or avarice. Mr. Wheaton is a public benefactor, and his work will give him a high rank amongst the most distinguished writers on the law of nations.

The work, though historical in its details, brings the law of nations down to the most recent decisions; and, to the diplomatist and statesman, will be what the life of an advocate is to the public—an application of the doctrine of legal science to the intercourse of men.

Every person who has occasion to look into the law of nations, should first consult Mr. Wheaton's book; in this he will find the latest decisions and discussions on the subject of national law; and when he has read this work, he may turn to the pages of Vattel, Grotius, Binkershoek and

* History of the Law of Nations, in Europe and America, from the earliest times, to the treaty of Washington, 1842, by Henry Wheaton, LL. D., minister of the United States to the Court of Berlin, corresponding member of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, in the Institute of France: New York, Gould, Banks & Co.

the ancient authors, with a double facility to acquire the true interpretations of their doctrines. The work evinces much research; and the labors of the compilation have compelled our author to spend many an evening in searching the archives of States, and the diplomatic writers in Europe—the dusty tomes of German universities, while his brethren in the diplomatic circles have been paying their devotions to Fashion at the shrines of Courts.

We would gladly make many extracts from this book, for the benefit of our readers, but our limits will not permit. We will first refer to that portion of Mr. Wheaton's work, more recent in its date—coeval with our time. We mean the discussion of certain great questions of international law, which occurred between Mr. Webster and Lord Ashburton, as preliminary to the signing of the treaty between Great Britain and the United States, in 1842, called the treaty of Washington.

The question discussed by these two distinguished negotiators, which was not definitely settled by the treaty, was that of the African slave-trade, and the right claimed by Great Britain to search all suspected vessels on the high seas, which were supposed to be connected with this inhuman traffic, as well as the security of American vessels, when meeting with disasters in passing between the United States and the Bahama Islands, and driven by such disasters into British ports.

The letter to which we refer, is dated August 1st, 1842, Department of State, Washington, and is from Mr. Webster, secretary of foreign affairs, to Lord Ashburton, the British minister, and was written for the purpose of apprizing the British government of the claims, which the United States government made in the case of the *Creole*, an American vessel carried into the port of Nassau, in the same year, by persons who had been slaves in Virginia; and who, while they were on a transportation from Norfolk, by sea, to New Orleans, had risen upon the master and officers of the vessel, put them to death, and escaped to the British Island, and had there been treated as free persons, by the Colonial government.

This letter is long, and exceedingly able, and one of the best didactic discussions we have ever seen put forth by the great mind of Mr. Webster. It discusses the rights which appertain to the vessels of nations, when on the high sea, in regard to the jurisdiction of the nation to which they belong. This right is shown, on the part of the American secretary, to be exclusive; he says:—

"A vessel on the high seas, beyond the distance of a marine league from the shore, is regarded as a part of the territory of the nation to which she belongs; and subjected, exclusively, to the jurisdiction of that nation. If, against the will of her master or owner, she be driven or carried nearer to land, or even into port, those who have, or who ought to have, control over her, struggling all the while to keep her upon the high seas, she remains in the exclusive jurisdiction of her own government. What reason or justice is there in creating a distinction between her rights and immunities in a position thus the result of absolute necessity, and the same rights and immunities before superior power had forced her out of her voluntary course?"

This argument embodies the law of nations on this subject, as acknowledged by the best writers on national law for the last century. Indeed, a private merchant vessel, or a public armed vessel of war, when driven into the ports of a neutral country, by stress of weather, for shelter or repairs, or when driven by pursuit of pirates or of their enemies, are entitled to protection. Mr. Webster further says:—

"If a ship be driven, by stress of weather, into a prohibited port, or into an open port with prohibited articles on board, in neither case is any forfeiture incurred. So, if a vessel be driven by necessity into a port strictly blockaded, this necessity is good defence, and exempts her from penalty. That the rules of law and comity of nations allow merchant vessels, coming into any open port of another country, voluntarily, for purposes of lawful trade, to bring with her, and keep over her, to a very considerable extent, the jurisdiction and authority of the laws of her own country; excluding to this extent, by consequence, the jurisdiction of the local laws. A ship at anchor in a foreign friendly port preserves its own national laws. So, if a murder be committed on board of an American vessel, by one of the crew or passengers, upon another of the crew or passengers, while such vessel is lying in a port within the jurisdiction of a foreign state, or sovreignty, the offence is cognizable by the proper court of the United States, in the same manner as if such offence had been committed on board the vessel on the high seas. But this jurisdiction of a nation over a vessel belonging to it, while lying in the port of another, is not necessarily wholly exclusive.

"We do not so consider, or so assert it. For any unlawful acts done by her, while thus lying in port, and for all contracts entered into, while there, by her master or owners, she and they must, doubtlessly, be answerable to the laws of the place. Nor if her master or crew, while on board in such port, break the peace of the community by the commission of crimes, can exemption be claimed for them.

"The jurisdiction and laws of a nation accompany her ships, not only over the high seas, but into ports and harbors, or wheresoever else they may be waterborne, for the general purpose of governing and regulating the rights, duties, and obligations, of those on board thereof; and that, to the extent of the exercise of this jurisdiction, they are considered as parts of the territory of the nation herself. And if a vessel be driven by stress of weather, perils of the sea, into the ports of another state, the laws of that state would not so attach to the vessel as to effect existing rights of property between persons on board, whether arising from contract, or otherwise. The local laws would not operate to make the goods of one man to become the goods of another man."

And Mr. Webster, in his argument, asserts that it ought not to effect their personal obligations, or existing relations between themselves. This latter argument applied to the case of the slaves on board of the Creole, which escaped from the vessel, and then were held freed, by the British authorites, from any obligations to their former masters. He says:

"By the comity of the law of nations, and the practice of modern times, merchant vessels entering open ports of other nations, for the purposes of trade, are presumed to be allowed to bring with them, and to retain, for their protection and government, the jurisdiction and laws of their own country. Because the ports are open—because trade is invited—and because, under these circumstancecs, such permission, or allowance, is according to general usage. It is not denied that all this may be refused—that on the arrival of a foreign vessel in its ports, all shipping articles, and all indentures of apprenticeship, between her crew and her owners, or masters, should cease to be binding. The nation has the power to do so, but they are not presumed to do so. It is competent for a nation, by express edict, or statute, to declare that no foreign jurisdiction, of any kind, should exist in, or over, a vessel after its arrival voluntarily into her ports; and so she might close her ports to the ships of all nations."

Mr. Webster further observes:—

"A state may also declare, in the absence of treaty stipulations, that foreigners shall not sue in her courts, nor travel in her territories, nor carry away funds or goods received for debts. The power of a state to make such laws is unquestionable; but, in the absence of direct and positive enactments to that effect, the presumption is, that the opposite of these things exist. While her ports are open to foreign trade, it is to be presumed that she expects foriegn ships to enter them,

bringing with them the jurisdiction of their own government, and the protection of its laws, to the same extent that her ships, and the ships of other commercial states, carry with them the jurisdiction of their respective governments, into the open ports of the world.

"A merchant vessel enters the port of a friendly state, and enjoys, while there, the protection of her own laws, and is under the jurisdiction of her own government; not in derogation of the sovereignty of the place, but by the presumed allowance, or permission, of that sovereignty. This permission, or allowance, is founded on the comity of nations; and this comity is part, and a most important and valuable part, of the law of nations, to which all nations are presumed to assent, until they make their dissent known.

"Vessels which are compelled to seek the port of a friendly nation, by an overruling necessity, may place their claim for exemption from interference on still higher principles—that is to say, principles held in more sacred regard by the comity—the country, or indeed, the common sense of justice of all civilized states.

"The presumption of law is stronger in regard to vessels driven into foreign ports by necessity, and seeking only a temporary refuge, than in regard to those which enter them voluntarily, and for purposes of trade, that they will not be interfered with, and that, unless they commit, while in port, some act against the laws of the place, they will be permitted to receive supplies, to repair damages, and to depart unmolested.

"Vessels of the United States driven by necessity into British ports, and staying there no longer than such necessity exists, violating no law, nor having intent to violate any law, will claim, and there will be claimed for them, protection and security, freedom from molestation, and from all interference with the character or condition of persons or things on board. In the opinion of the government of the United States, such vessels, so driven, and so detained, by necessity, in a friendly port, ought to be regarded as still pursuing their original voyage, and turned out of their direct course only by disaster or wrongful violence; and they ought to receive all assistance necessary to enable them to resume their direct route; and that interference and molestation by the local authorities, where the whole voyage is lawful, both in act and intent, is ground for just and grave complaint."

We have not referred to this letter, to discuss the law of nations growing out of the Creole case; for we are of the opinion, that the law on this question has never yet been settled in the code of any nation, and we may presume that generations will come and pass away before any definite rules will be acknowledged for a similar case. But we do not remember ever to have seen the law and rights, appertaining to merchant vessels, while lying in the ports of a foreign and friendly nation, so fully and clearly expounded by any writer on national law, as in the letter of Mr. Webster, from which we have made the above extracts. This letter could have found no more appropriate repository than in Mr. Wheaton's work; and he has had the sagacity, throughout his book, to collect, from numberless sources, as well as from the ancient ponderous tomes of the writers on national law—the good and practical parts of them, while he has cast the rubbish away.

The British minister did not undertake to answer Mr. Webster's letter at length; for he came embassador to the United States without instructions from his govermnent to enter into a formal stipulation for the security of vessels of the United States, when driven by disasters into British ports.

The next letter, to which we would call the attention of our readers, in Mr. Wheaton's book, is found at page 737, and is also from Mr. Webster to the British minister, under date of August 8, 1842. This last let-

ter is upon the subject of the impressment of seamen out of American vessels, while on the high seas and in foreign ports, by British authority. This letter, like the preceding one, is a profound and able vindication of the law, on this subject, as claimed by the government of the United States.

The British minister, in his reply, states that the laws of England and America, maintain opposite principles respecting allegiance to the sovereign. America, receiving every year by thousands emigrants from Europe, maintains the doctrine, suitable to her condition, of the right of transferring allegiance at will. The laws of Great Britain have maintained, from all time, the opposite doctrines: the duties of allegiance are held to be indefeasible; and it is believed, says the British minister, that this doctrine, under various modifications, prevails in most, if not in all, civilized states of Europe.

Our readers are aware that Great Britain claims the right to visit and take out of American vessels, while on a voyage, all persons found on board, whether composing the crew or not, who are British-born subjects, although they have renounced their allegiance to their native country, and become naturalized American citizens. The United States government hold that a person can expatriate himself at will, and become the citizen of a country foreign to that of his birth. And at the present day, France, by her political code, has conceded the same right of expatriation to her native-born citizens.

At page 740 of Mr. Wheaton's work, Mr. Webster, in his reply to Lord Ashburton, says:—

"England acknowledges herself overburdened with population of the poorer classes. Every instance of the emigration of such persons is regarded by her as a benefit. England, therefore, encourages emigration. Means are notoriously supplied to emigrants, to assist their conveyance, from public funds; and the new world, and most especially these United States, receive the many thousands of her subjects thus ejected from the bosom of their native land by the necessities of their condition. They come away from poverty and distress in over-crowded cities, to seek employment, comfort, and new homes, in a country of free institutions, possessed by their kindred race, speaking their own language, and having laws and usages in many respects like those to which they have been accustomed—and a country which, upon the whole, is found to possess more attractions for persons of their character and condition than any other on the face of the globe. It is stated that in the quarter of the year, ending with June last, more than 26,000 emigrants left the single port of Liverpool for the United States; being four or five times as many as left the same port within the same period for British colonies, and all other parts of the world. Of these crowds of emigrants, many arrive in our cities in circumstances of great destitution; and the charities of the country, both public and private, are generally taxed to relieve their immediate wants. In time they mingle with the new community in which they find themselves, and seek means of living. Some find employment in the cities, others go to the frontiers to cultivate lands reclaimed from the forest; and a greater or less number of the residue, becoming in time naturalized citizens, enter into the merchant service under a flag of their adopted country."

Mr. Webster argues the question with Lord Ashburton thus:—

"Now, my lord, if war should break out between England and a European power, can anything be more unjust, anything more irreconcilable to the general sentiments of mankind, than that England should seek out these persons, thus encouraged by her, and compelled by their own condition, to leave

their own native homes, tear them away from their new employments, their new political relations, and their domestic connections, and force them to undergo the dangers and hardships of military service for a country, which has thus ceased to be their own country? Certainly, certainly, my lord, there can be but one answer to this question!"

By perusing Mr. Webster's letters, the reader will find that the just rights of the United States, in regard to the impressment of seamen from her ships, are fully vindicated; and he will also learn the state of the question, as it now remains undecided by two great nations, who are urging, each against the other, their conflicting rules of international law. The work of Mr. Wheaton is of that practical nature, that gives it a claim to perusal by the mercantile reader on both sides of the Atlantic. And every person who wishes to fit himself for business in the daily commercial intercourse of the world, should purchase and read this book; he will not only find in it a history of the law of nations, but also the law as applicable to most questions which arise between nations in their political and commercial character. The right of visitation and search of American vessels on the high seas, suspected of being engaged in the slave trade, is also discussed by Mr. Webster, in a letter to Mr. Everett, our minister to the Court of London, under date of March 28, 1843. This letter is an able vindication of the American side of the question; and the British side is not supported or justified, according to Mr. Wheaton, by a single passage of any institutional writer on public law. It leads, according to Lord Stowell, to gigantic mischief and universal war. Mr. Wheaton has taken care, in his work, to vindicate the rights of our republic whenever he can do so in accordance with the law of nations. Mr. Webster, in his dispatch to Mr. Everett, page 718 of the work before us, denies, in the fullest manner, the right of British cruisers to detain an American merchant vessel either for a visit or search. The government of the United States does not admit that, by the law and practice of nations, there is any such thing as a right of visit distinguished from the right of search. It does not admit, a visit of American merchant vessels by British cruisers is founded on any right. A vessel cannot be called upon to show even her papers, while on the high seas, in times of peace. Her rights are equal to the rights of any other vessel, whether private or public, and no vessel has a right to molest her. The use of papers is, in times of peace and war, to show her national character, and the lawfulness of her voyage in those ports of other countries to which she may proceed for purposes of trade; and to prove her nationality when visited by belligerent cruisers in time of war. The historical accounts and discussions of the right of visit and search take up more than one hundred pages of Mr. Wheaton's work; and he has fully shown the immunity of merchant vessels in time of peace to be either visited or searched on the high seas. At page 308 Mr. Wheaton has also collected the law relative to rights of nations to participate in the navigation of great rivers which pass through the territory of one nation on the sea coast, to that of another above, as, in the case of the navigation of the Mississippi, page 508, he says:—

"The right of the United States to participate with Spain in the navigation of the river Mississippi previous to the cession of Louisiana, was rested by the American government on the sentiment written in deep characters on the heart of man, that the ocean is free to all men, and its rivers to all riparian inhabitants."

This natural right was found to be acknowledged and protected in all tracts of country united under the same political society, by laying the navigable rivers open to all the inhabitants on their banks. When these rivers enter the limits of another society, if the right of the upper inhabitants to descend the stream be in any case obstructed, it is an act of force by a stronger society against a weaker, and condemned by the judgment of mankind.

At page 134, of the work, the subject of contraband, and the confiscation of the vehicle carrying contraband, and of innocent, with unlawful articles found on board, is discussed. The French marine ordinances of 1681, subjected the contraband articles to confiscation, but innocent goods and the ships were free. Some nations have settled between themselves, by treaty, what shall be considered articles of contraband. In the nature of things there appears to be two kinds or species of contraband goods: 1st, contraband of war; 2d, contraband of the treasury. The first are goods carried by a neutral, into an enemy's ports, or designed for them, in time of war, between two belligerent nations. The second, are goods imported, or intended to be imported, into a country, either in time of war or peace, contrary to the regulations of the revenue laws of the country. In either case, the goods are subjected to seizure and comdemnation, but whether the vessel that transports the goods, shall be liable to condemnation, is often a question of municipal custom, or regulations, but much more frequently, of international law. The laws of nations on the subject of contraband, as in other cases, is not to be drawn from any other source, than reason and usage, unless there has been some positive treaty, or regulation, on the subject. Reason commands us to be equally friendly to two of our neighbors, or friends, who are enemies to each other; and, hence it follows that, I am not to prefer either in war, or to give either aid and comfort, by selling, or carrying to either, articles, which are known as munitions of war. These articles are often enumerated in treaties, and consist usually of powder, ammunition, fire-arms, weapons of war, all war-like accoutrements, military dress and clothing, cannons, muskets, ships, sheet copper, wrought iron, spikes, sails, hemp, tar, pitch, rosin, timber, cordage, and whatever serves for the equipment of ships, and vessels of war. By the ancient Roman law, a vessel was condemned, or acquitted, which carried contraband of the treasury, according to the fact, whether the owners knew of the contraband being shipped. There was a wide distinction, in case of goods, whether the contraband goods, and the innocent goods, belonged to one owner, in regard to the condemnation of the whole cargo—the whole might have been condemned if they belonged to one owner, but, if the innocent goods belonged to another owner, they were not involved in the confiscation. The early practice of the English admiralty courts, was to condemn both ship and cargo, when contraband was found on board, and so is the practice, with many nations, at the present day; but, after the contraband cargo has been discharged, and the vessel is found on the high seas, or has cleared from the port of discharge, we believe that no nation, at the present day, condemns the guilty vessel. The English rule was subsequently relaxed, so as to limit the confiscation of the ship, and the innocent parts of the cargo, to cases where they belonged to the owners of the contraband, or where the shipment of the contraband is attempted to be concealed under false papers and false destination.

Mr. Wheaton's work is, truly, what it claims to be—a history of the law of nations; and, as such, may be consulted by every person who cares for the rights of his nation, on the seas, or on land, either in times of peace or war. The work is extended through some 790 pages, and brings down the law of nations to our own times. We hope that the learned author will abridge the work into a reasonable compass, so that it may be used, to advantage, as a text book, in our law shools, and universities. The introduction to the work, consists of 67 pages, and notes, and begins with the international law of the ancient states of Greece and Italy; it also treats of the influence of the Roman law, in forming the modern law of nations, and many other subjects, too numerous for us to recapitulate—while the general authors, mentioned therein, are recommended to us, with a biographical history of each, besides an ample reference to the despatches, negotiations, treaties, and official communications, of diplomatic agents, of the European and American nations, from the earliest times to the present day. Indeed, Mr. Wheaton appears to have consulted the diplomatic codes of all nations, and drawn from them the principles which illustrate the law of nations, at the present time; nor have the judicial decisions of our own country been overlooked, or those of England; and he has done his duty, faithfully, to the work, by reference to reports and decisions, on questions of international law, which have often been adjudicated, in the tribunals of different European countries. The work, as a literary production, is respectable, and will meet the requirements of the public in this respect, though we noticed an inaccuracy of sentiment, in the introduction, like the following:—

"The laws and customs, by which the mutual intercourse of Europe, and of European nations, was regulated, previous to the introduction of Christianity, were founded on the prejudices which regarded the different races of men as natural enemies."

We are far from believing, or acknowledging, that the inhabitants of Europe were originally made up of different races. Indeed, the more we investigate this subject, the better satisfied we are, that God has made, of one blood, all the nations of the earth; they have all, essentially, the same elements to compose their language, the same principles and customs, on which to found their laws, and when they shall have been educated and enlightened, by religion, and a just system of municipal, and international law, peace shall reign triumphant throughout the world, and all will be of one mind, to the praise of their Creator.

Art. V.—RECIPROCITY TREATIES AND COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE WITH BRITISH COLONIES.

The only great department of the industry of the country, which is not at present in a flourishing state, is the shipping interest. It is not attended with loss, but it is by no means prosecuted with the success which for many years has attended it. It is highly important, that the mercantile class should at once make an effort to restore the navigation of the United States, to the position it occupied a few years since. A joint effort, from those interested in the shipping interest, in various parts of the country, to change the measures of the federal government in relation to it, would undoubtedly produce a favorable effect. All parties at

Washington appear to entertain the conviction, that the reciprocal treaties, and the convention with Great Britain in relation to her West India colonies, are adverse to American navigation. Then, why not legislate and restore the former state of our commercial relations? Mr. Webster, when Secretary of State, expressed the opinion that they operated unfavorably to American interests. Mr. Upshur expressed the same opinion in his report to the Senate of the United States, in 1843. During the session of Congress, in 1842, the committee of commerce, of which J. P. Kennedy was chairman, made a voluminous report upon these subjects. The committee reported bills requesting the president to give notice to Denmark, Sweden, the Hansiatic republic, Prussia, Austria, and Russia, that the reciprocal treaties would terminate in one year; also to request the president to give notice to the British government that the convention for trade with the British colonies would cease in one year. The committee also reported bills for placing the commerce, with these nations, upon a just and equal footing; but they were not passed, owing to the great excitement existing at the time.

We propose, therefore, with a view to bring the subject before the mercantile community, to give some of the remarks of Mr. Webster, Mr. Upshur, the committee of commerce of the House of Representatives, and some of the statements of the increase of foreign tonnage in comparison with our own. By these statements it will appear that the British tonnage has increased under this convention; for trade with the British colonies from 3,002 tons, in 1832, to 387,947 tons, in 1840; that instead of having a greater part of the tonnage with nations under reciprocal treaties, it is reversed, and instead of two-thirds, we have only one-third. The whole foreign tonnage is increased, from 133,436 tons, in 1830, to 741,632 tons, in 1840. Can we be surprised that freights are low, when foreign tonnage has increased 500 per cent in ten years? Mr. Webster expresses himself in his speech at Baltimore as follows:—

"I do, gentlemen, entertain the strongest belief that the principle of reciprocity, acted upon by the government, is wrong, a mistake from the beginning, and injurious to the great interests of the country. What is it?

"By every reciprocity treaty, we agree to give to every nation, with which it is concluded, a right to trade between us and other nations on the same terms as we trade ourselves, is to give to the Hanse towns, and the other states of the same class, the right to fetch and carrry between us and all the nations of the world on the same terms as we do, and practically they can do it much more profitably.

"In my opinion, the true principle, the philosophy of politics on the subject, is exhibited in the old navigation law of England, introduced by some of the odd geniuses of Cromwell's time, and acted upon ever since.

"The principle is this, the rule is this, any nation may bring commodities to her in her own vessels, and carry our corn to her ports—we having the like privilege—but no nation shall bring the products of a third nation, or carry between us and that nation. It has been said, by a very distinguished person, and now living, that the rule of the navigation law had its foundation in this idea, England sought in her arrangements to secure as much of the carrying trade of the world as she could, and what she could not get herself, she sought to divide among other nations.

"In one sense, this is, doubtless, a selfish policy, so far as it indicates a disposition to obtain all she could, but this is not an extraordinary selfishness; in other respects the operation is most just, the wisest and most beneficial that could be desired. We may test this in a variety of ways. It does tend, to a certain extent, to increase the means of that state which has the greatest mercantile marine, and can afford to sell cheapest; but, at the same time, it does give to all

others the advantage of carrying their own goods. Suppose England can carry cheaper than any other nation in the world, and suppose all the nations of the world should adopt free trade principles, and open their ports to all that chose to enter; at once the great nation that could carry cheapest would go, step by step, till presently she monopolized the whole carrying trade of the world. Does not every one see that such a state must become master of the whole world? or, suppose there were two great nations, like Great Britain and the United States, found to be the cheapest carriers?

"We ought to give to every nation the right of bringing her cargo here in her ships, if she gives the like privilege; but by the reciprocity treaties, to give, for the carrying of a nation like Bremen, which has but one port, all the ports along a coast of 1,500 miles, with 17,000,000 of people, when she has scarcely 200,000 of her own—pray, what sort of reciprocity is this? It is very much like the horse and the cock who were walking together. The cock thought to make a reciprocal treaty with the horse—'I will not tread on you, if you will not tread on me.'

"Heretofore, in Baltimore we all know, before 1827, the trade was carried on in American vessels, with the Hanse towns, and sustained about eighty vessels regularly, mainly to Bremen and Hamburgh. In 1827 a new treaty was formed with the Hanseatic republic, and by the first article of that treaty, it was agreed upon, that articles might be imported into the United States, from any part of the world, in a vessel of the Hanseatic powers, and it was further agreed that any vessel might be regarded a vessel of one or the other of the Hanseatic republics, which was owned by citizens of those republics. Our government, when it entered into that stipulation, should have been more cautious, as it had the example of England in making a treaty with the same republic in 1825, stipulated that no vessels should pass as Hanseatic which were not built in that republic; a very important consideration, at that time, for none of the republics were engaged in ship building, though since that time they have built many good vessels.

"And what was the practical result of this act of liberality? I have said before that previous to 1827 the number of American vessels engaged in trade with the republics in Baltimore was eighty during the year. It fell in a few years to twenty-five, and in regard to the tonnage of the two countries from 1831 to 1836, three-sevenths of it was in American vessels, and four-sevenths in Bremen vessels. In 1844 there entered from the Hanse towns 136 foreign vessels, and 44 American vessels."

Mr. Upshur, Secretary of State, in Nov. 24, 1843, made a report to the Senate of the United States upon this subject. He says:—

"The condition of our navigation and shipping interests demands at this time particular attention from government. The great and constantly increasing amount of foreign shipping, in our ports, shows the necessity of prompt legislation, for the protection and enlargement of our commercial marine. There is reason to apprehend that, if the best advisable measures be not presently taken, American commerce will be soon engrossed by the ships and seamen of Europe. There can be no doubt that the course of this great evil is to be found in the stipulations of our commercial treaties, which place the shipping of foreign nations on an equality with that of the United States, in the indirect trade, as well as direct trade."

This necessity operates to the advantage of those nations which build and navigate their vessels at the least cost.

"It is well known that most of the nations with which we have concluded such treaties, especially those of the north of Europe, have a decided advantage over us in these particulars: nearly all the materials of ship building are much more costly in the United States; the wages we pay our seamen are nearly double; and the general scale of living, on ship-board, is much better, and consequently much more expensive. The consequence of all this is, that our shipowners, before they can find employment for their vessels, are obliged to wait in their ports until the Swedish, Danish, and Hanseatic, has taken off as much

freight as it can carry; yet we persuade ourselves that our treaties with all three powers have placed our commerce upon a footing of reciprocity.

"The remedy is, consequently, in our own hands, and we have only to retrace our steps, and make known the determination of this government to regulate foreign trade, in future, upon such principles of reciprocity as shall not extend beyond direct importation trade, in the produce and manufactures of the contracting parties."

The committee of commerce in the House of Representatives made a report, in which it was stated that the British tonnage, under the convention of the free trade with the British colonies, had risen from 4,002 tons, in 1830, 387,947 tons, in 1840.

"From these facts the committee feel justified in assuming the position that, in order to establish a just and actual reciprocity in the employment of the navigation of the two countries, throwing out of view any question relating to reciprocity in trade with Great Britain, in regard to which the most striking and oppressive inequalities exist, as we have already stated, it is essential—1st. That all the ports of the British colonies should be open to the admission of American vessels, on the same terms that British vessels are admitted into our ports; and, 2d. That American vessels shall have the privilege of conveying freely from the British colonies to the mother country, to all other British colonies, and to all foreign countries, all commodities of the same class or description as those which are ordinarily imported by the British colonies from the United States, on the same terms as British vessels carry them.

"These conditions are no more than are now substantially permitted by our law to British vessels; and it is quite obvious to your committee, that there can be no fair reciprocation without the allowance of them to our trade. The arrangement for such a privilege might easily be made by the designation of a list of articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, usually imported into Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and other British provinces, which list should form the staple of a carrying trade, open to vessels of the United States."

From the statements which have been made, and from the opinions expressed by two Secretaries of State, and the committee of commerce of the House of Representatives, it is evident that the subject was fully understood at Washington. All that is now required, is a general and great effort of the large body of merchants to annul the reciprocal treaties and the colonial convention with Great Britain, by which our navigation has suffered so severely.

After the forcible and eloquent extracts from the public documents upon the subject, it is unnecessary for the writer to enlarge upon the subject. The only defence of the convention for trade with the British colonies, which we know, was made by Mr. Woodbury, in the Senate of the United States. As he was in the cabinet at the time it was made, it was in a great degree the justification of his own political course. His principal argument was, that the custom-house returns, at Eastport, exhibited a fallacious view of the increase of foreign tonnage, from the frequent returns of British vessels, and the shortness of the voyages. This effects the general result in a limited manner, as the great increase of British tonnage has been at southern ports, principally at New Orleans. This has arisen from the great advantage which British vessels possess in making what is called a triangular voyage. They leave England with cargoes suited to the markets in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, or the West India colonies, which, if the markets at those points are not favorable, are brought to the United States. In this respect they have a decided ad-

vantage over American ships, of which the great increase of British ships, at the southern ports, particularly New Orleans, is the result. By the latest accounts from Savannah, a place of limited trade, there were 20 foreign ships waiting for cargoes; at New Orleans, there were 50 Bremen and British ships of the largest class, about one-third of the tonnage in port. This is evidently an increase upon the custom-house returns in 1840.

With the general reduction of the British tariff last year, the duties were reduced in the colonies; but the discrimination is still sufficient to give them the carrying trade: they have lowered the duties, but their own ships still have the advantage. It is this uniform and constant regard to the protection of her navigation, which has advanced England to a commercial prosperity beyond any nation of ancient or modern times.

The great increase of our productions, particularly of cotton, has diminished the effect of these treaties, and the convention for trade with the British colonies. The navigation of the United States would have been in a very depressed and embarrassed situation, if the production of cotton had not reached a point beyond all rational calculation. This, however, is temporary, and connot continue. In the meantime, every year increases foreign tonnage in comparison with our own. It only remains for the mercantile community to make a direct and earnest appeal to Congress, to protect, by just and equal legislation, the great commercial marine of the country from embarrassment and ruin.

Art. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JACOB LEISLER, THE NEW YORK MERCHANT.

An amazed back-woodsman, who had come to witness the wonders of New York, with its immense and never-ceasing improvements, remarked: "New York will be a fine city when it is done." The whimsical idea might apply with an equal degree of precision to society. Ever since the day when Lot entreated for Sodom, men have talked of the principles of conservation, and of the possibility of perfection; and yet the experience of every period finds society still in that most uncomfortable state of transition. The heterogeneous materials commingle and separate—seem even on the point of crystallization, when suddenly the infusion of some new element drives the whole mass asunder.

The period marked by the career of Jacob Leisler, the "martyr merchant of New York," was one of peculiar confusion and uncertainty. The minds of men were turbulent with wild adventures, and a restless speculation upon the principles of religion and legislation, while as yet opinions were crude and fluctuating.

They had but recently broken away the encrustings of long established forms in religion; the turmoil of political revolution had scarcely subsided in the English mind, while the germ of republicanism, not dead, was but laid aside to await elsewhere a sober and more healthful vitality. The supporters of protestantism beheld everywhere the stirring of popery, and (not without cause) dreaded the operations of plot and intrigue, that might, at some time, plunge both people and government into violence and bloodshed.

The middling classes of society, amongst whom were to be found the staunch advocates for free institutions, were ever on the alert for opportunities to advance their favorite views. Added to this, the laws of maritime and national intercourse were but imperfectly comprehended, and acts, which now would be considered violations of neutrality and national honor, were too frequently to be the subject of comment, at a time when the tendency of all nautical enterprise was to merge itself in the lawless career of the freebooter.

In proof of these things, we have only to consider the manner in which Charles II. coolly appropriates to the English crown the territory of a people amongst whom he had sought shelter in his days of exile and misfortune, granting to his papist brother, the Duke of York, the title to a colony owned and sustained by an independent government, and this in requiture for the hospitality with which he had been entertained by that very people.

There is something really affecting in the letters of the gallant Stuyvesant, at this gloomy period of the New York colonial history; when disheartened by the insufficiency of his means of defence, and the inertness of the people, he was compelled to yield to superior force, and see the province so dear to his heart pass into the hands of a foreign power. His hearty and indignant remonstrance at this unjust usurpation, is expressed with the earnest faith of a man not blind to national justice, and who cannot believe that such flagrant outrage will be tolerated.

But it is vain to dwell upon this part of our history, however dear to a generous mind, since the pen of the wit has determined that it ought of right to be ridiculous; and though we may recoil at the bad taste of a laugh at the expense of sturdy patriotism, the general voice is against us, and we will leave the affecting picture of a scanty population with its poor resources, and brave, true-hearted defenders, without means, and doomed to an ignoble surrender of their rights to those who, better than ourselves, conceive the whole affair to be exquisitely funny.

But the times were times of usurpation—of stirring questionings in men's minds, which as yet returned no response; and they, in the hurry of action, failed to perceive that the oracle was mute.

The colony of New Amsterdam is thus an appendage of the British crown: it is first lawlessly seized upon, and then, by a treaty of peace, in 1667, is formally bartered away—Surinam for New Netherlands, which becomes New York, in honor of the king's brother. Like most of the other colonies of the time, it is regarded more as a trading station, a commercial experiment, than as the foundation of a province hereafter to be the source of a national pride. It was here that men, troublesome to the country abroad, might be sent, and made innoxious, at least to their commissioners. Here the broken-down courtiers of the times, disaffected papists, and adventurers of every kind, found an asylum in the administration of the colony.

In order to judge correctly of the circumstances in the career of Leisler, we must keep these things steadily in view. We must picture to ourselves, not a great and prosperous country, well protected by the powerful government, amenable to just laws, and the people bound to each other by similar views and interests, speaking the same language, and swayed by the same religious faith, but as a station for trade, with but a handful of occupants scattered over an immense tract of country, the gov-

ernment consigned to incompetent hands, while the king is too busy with the disturbances and wars of Europe to attend much to what is going on in America, and the jealousies of protestants and papists, the dissimilar views of French, German, and English residents, create continued distrust and uneasiness.

We must picture to ourselves the rivalries of conflicting interests, the rich landed proprietors opposed by the enterprising merchant, with his expansive views and limited means of operation; when the whole carrying trade of the province was carried on through fifteen vessels of a hundred tons each, and but six of these belonged to the colony. Compare this with the shipping of New York now, when her sails whiten every sea.

Added to these disheartenments to the country, all the fluctuations of European policy found, in some shape or other, a reflex here. The colony, thus unjustly usurped, bartered for Surinam, and neglected, and struggling, is yet often uninformed as to what is going on abroad, till some blow is struck upon itself; and it was actually re-captured by the Dutch, in 1665, who held possession of the country six months, when the English took the ball once more into their own hands.

The people had no test, no shibboleth, by which a right to their immunities should be judged. They did not come hither to found a sect, but to establish a hearth-stone, and they had, therefore, no such plea as the Puritan fathers assumed when they expelled from amongst them all whom they found obnoxious to their views.

Incongruous as were the materials constituting the mass of society here, there did still grow up amongst them a class of men who identified themselves with the soil, who had the public interest at heart, sturdy, honest thinkers, who looked upon this land as their rightful heritage, to be cared for, and to be bequeathed to their children. Amid such as these, grew up Jacob Leisler, a thrifty merchant, following his vocation, nor intermeddling much with public affairs, till the people—the people of the soil began to feel the need of a leader. Then it was that, with one voice, they turned simultaneously to one who was of themselves, and would have their interest at heart. It was an instinctive expression of patriotism, thus early exhibited, notwithstanding the unpromising soil in which it had taken root.

"*Magna est veritas et prevalebit,*" however true in the abstract, will hardly apply to individual experience; hence it is that party interest, the prejudices of rank and religion, and the dull mantle of time, which covers what it cannot repair, have all conspired to place the character of Leisler in a false light upon the page of history.

It will be seen that he was a man of the soil; unlettered, but intelligent, and of a clear, manly understanding, although tinctured with the credulity of the age, and the strong prejudices against popery. A man who obtained wealth by hardy enterprise; and influence, not by the arts of the demagogue, but by the practice of benevolence, courage, and integrity, and those social virtues that always commend themselves to the generous heart. A man whose sturdy republicanism made him peculiarly obnoxious to the rich landed proprietors, who had ruled the province previous to the possession of the English, such as the Livingstons, the Philipses, Schuylers, and Rensselaers.

It may easily be conceived how such a man, however well-meaning and patriotic he might be, unsustained, except by the voice of popular favor, unaccustomed to authortiy, governed by a few easily comprehended principles of action, which he supposed to be as obvious to the minds of others as they were to his own, and as equally binding; namely, loyalty to his prince and integrity to his country—it will be perceived how such a man might become entangled in the snares of the designing, and at length fall a victim to their malice.

This portion of the actual history of New York is so often passed over as the mere accident of a popular out-break, or an ebullition of individual ambition, that it is next to impossible to reach the truth as it really existed. Few are willing to perceive the indications of free principles amongst a people who thus chose their ruler by acclamation, and few are willing to see in Leisler himself the single-minded patriot he really was.

Immediately upon the abdication of James, rumors were afloat that an armed force would appear to hold the colony in behalf of the ex-monarch, and hence arose the cry of popery. The French were inciting the savages to acts of violence, while they were already tampering with our frontier; the old, rich landholders were supposed to be on the alert to recover the power they had lost; pirates were upon the coast, and the whole colony seemed ready to be plunged into violence and disorder. It was at this crisis that the people turned their eyes upon Leisler. In the animated language of the biographer: "They would seize upon the fort, they would place their most valued citizen, the oldest captain of their train-bands at their heads, and he should lead them on to the citadel. 'Tot Leisler! tot Leisler! tot het huys von Leisler!' To Leisler! to the house of Leisler! was the cry; and, clashing their arms as they rushed through the streets, the thronged multitude were soon pressing around the house of the merchant. The door was thrown open, and the light from within fell first upon the features of a few grave citizens, who, surrounded by the rabble, stood there cap in hand to address him. But even as he uttered his refusal to share in a movement so tumultuous, the tramp of the free companies, who marched in the rear of the multitude, was heard approaching, and, silent as was their tread, the gleam of corslet and harquebuss gave a sterner animation to the scene. Leisler withdrew to arm himself, and within the hour received the keys of the fort, of which his townsmen had meanwhile taken posession."

The first act of the "loyal and noble Captain Leisler," (as he is styled by the New England deputation in their congratulatory address,) was to proclaim the Prince of Orange King by the sound of the trumpet, thus forestalling the tardy and scheming men, who hesitated while the power was in their hands to perform this act of loyalty.

The next act of Leisler was to write a private letter to the king with his own hand, giving an account of everything that had been done, describing the present state of affairs and the future prospects of the colony, stating the repairs he had deemed necessary to commence in the fortification of the city, and detailing the consequent expenditures of the public money. Among other things, he told the king that (foreseeing the war with France) that must ensue from William's accession to the throne of England, he had, for the protection of the harbor against the enemy's cruisers, erected a new battery of six guns to the south of the fort. And

thus the noble promenade, still called the Battery of New York, incidentally owes its existence to the merchant Leisler.

This letter of Leisler, by those who delight to denounce him as an usurper, has been sneered at for some defects in its English phraseology. The manly openness, the business-like directness, and truthful accountability of the writer are wholly overlooked; his Dutch honesty is forgotten in his Dutch idioms.

It is curious, amid the excitements of those troublesome times, to trace everywhere the fidelity of the five nations to the people of the province, while the marchings and countermarchings of Schuyler, and his trusty Mohawks, would afford a harvest for the novelist. The generous magnanimity of Leisler, often exercised in behalf of his enemies, might have been worthy of a more chivalric age. The gallant Col. Milburn, too, the son-in-law of Leisler, seemed well to merit the confidence of his leader; while the last words of the unfortunate merchant upon the scaffold fully rebut the scandal of their enemies, that "Leisler was but the tool of Milburn."

"We now behold the province of New York thrown upon her own resources, with a governor, the choice of her own people, at the head of affairs; and Leisler, in the teeth of a virulent opposition, which stopped at nothing to thwart his plans, began to exhibit an energy in the conduct of his administration, which was equally new and startling to those whose ideas of a provincial executive were derived only from the broken-down courtiers, who had hitherto been sent from England to rule over them.

"The French had already made a bold attempt upon Albany. They had penetrated from Canada to the Mohawk, at mid-winter, after nearly a month's march of almost indescribable hardships, through wild and continuous forests, and through mountain defiles, blocked by the snows of a northern winter; they surprised Schenectady, destroyed the fort and soldiery, fired almost every dwelling in the place, and made indiscriminate slaughter of the inhabitants. The whole province was aghast with consternation; but the moment it recovered from its bewilderment, they, whose political dissensions were the cause of the frontier being left unguarded, were the first to cry out against Leisler; they charged the blame of that horrid massacre upon the governor, whose rule they had refused to acknowledge, and whose efforts to unite the people against the common foe, they themselves had spared no pains.

"The blow struck at Schenectady was properly regarded by Leisler as only the precursor of some more formidable invasion, the object of which would be to wrest New York from the British crown; an invasion such as that attempted by Frontenac, about two years afterwards, when he poured battalion after battalion, of the veteran troops of Louis XIV., into the western wilds of New York. *The remedy of Leisler was none other than the conquest of Canada itself*—to strike at the root of the mischief, by expelling the French from the continent."

In the meanwhile, an "English stranger" had been appointed governor of the province; but a year elapsed, and he did not make his appearance, nor had Leisler been informed of the fact. Parcels designed for the regulation of public affairs, had been addressed—"To Francis Nicholson, Esq.; or, in his absence, (the ex-governor was in England, plotting against the people's man,) to such as, for the time being, takes care for preserving the peace, and administering the laws"—which was a virtual recognition of Leisler; but his manly letter to the king remained unan-

swered; and it was rumored that the dull monarch was jealous, "that what the governor had done for the province was more for the love of protestantism, than loyalty to himself;" and, therefore, he was silent in his behalf.

It is melancholy to see, at this time, how the net gathers around the brave Leisler—drawn by enemies at home, and foes abroad. Whatever may have been his errors, they now sprung from dilemmas it was impossible for him to escape, with the fearful opposition against him; yet, everywhere, like a silver thread, guiding his steps, we detect a nice adherence to the principles by which he professed to be governed—fidelity to the people, and loyalty to the protestant succession to the crown of England.

At length, the new governor made his appearance; and, notwithstanding the assumptive and insolent manner of this poor degraded official, that might have provoked outrage from a man less true to principle than Leisler, we find him, after a proper and dignified assertion of the requisite preliminaries, resigning his authority into his hands. However the malignity of his enemies may have prompted them to apply abusive epithets upon the man, the straight-forward candor, and open manliness of his language, in the documents possessed at this time, are the best possible refutation.

But all his integrity, and honest public service, were of no avail. The next day beheld him a prisoner, and nine others, charged with high treason.

Would that a veil could be drawn over the closing scene of blood and outrage! What though a tardy prince at length acknowledged the loyal services of his devoted subject, his faithfulness had been already sealed with his blood? Though a parliament subsequently reversed the act of attainder, the injustice had been done, the true heart blighted, and a stain affixed to his memory, which time nor grief cannot wash away. What though public honors were awarded the friend of the people when he was no more, and his lifeless ashes were taken from their dishonored grave, and, amid civil and military honors, carried in triumph through the city he had loved, and amidst the people he had served; yet, what were these things when the noble heart had been wronged and outraged, and the honored head swept to the earth? Alas, for human greatness! if it were not that things like these become the seal affixed by blood to high and holy principle, it were a mockery indeed!

We must give the last scene in the vivid language of Mr. Hoffman. After detailing the means by which the death-warrant was secured, the writer continues:—

"The carouse went on; a cold storm of sleet and rain, such as often makes a May day miserable in our climate, raged without. But though those charged with the fatal missive had slipped away from the revel as quietly as possible, and conveyed it to the sheriff; yet the soldiers of Ingoldsby, who were drawn up to overawe the populace, gave note to them of the dreadful act about to be consummated. They thronged around the place of execution, which, I may remark, was at the lower end of what has since been called the Park, where the spray of the fountain has succeeded the blood-stain of the martyr.

"Leisler and Milburne stood there upon the scaffold together; and there, too, within hearing of their voices, stood more than one of those who had brought them to this pass. The high spirit of Milburn could

hardly brook the presence of men to whom he owed this fate of ignominy; and, turning to one gentleman whom he deemed personally hostile to himself, he exclaimed: 'Robert Livingston, I will implead thee at the bar of heaven for this deed.'

"Leisler, however, seems to have been more moved by the untimely fate of his son-in-law than his own, while utterly indifferent to the gaze of those who stood there as if to triumph over his dying moments. 'Why must you die?' said he to Milburn; 'you have been but as a servant doing my will; and, as a dying man, I declare before God that what I have done was for King William and Queen Mary, the defence of the Protestant religion, and the good of the country.'

"He then submits and prostrates himself in hope before his Redeemer. He doubts not that he has committed errors; some through ignorance; some through jealous fear, that disaffected persons would act against the government; some through misinformation, and misconstruction of people's intentions; and some through rashness of passion. For every offence he asks pardon, first of God, and next of all persons offended. He prays that all malice may be buried in his grave, and forgives the most inveterate of his enemies. He repeats, 'Father, forgive them; they know not what they do;' and, as his last words declares that as to the matter for which he is condemned, his purpose was for the good of his fellow-creatures, according to the best of his understanding and ability which God had given him."

A prayer for the good of the province, and one "for the family to which he *did* belong," concluded the dying devotions of Leisler; and, turning to the sheriff, he exclaimed, "I am ready—I am ready!" At that moment the tempest, which had for a while suspended its fury, burst upon the multitude in redoubled wrath. The sky grew dark, as if scowling upon the expiring agonies of a martyr. Witnesses of the scene, whose written details we are now quoting, tell of the torrents of rain that instantly descended, as if to wash away the blood of the sacrifice. "The faintings and screams of the women," says one writer, "were seen and heard in every direction." "The shrieks of the people were dreadful," says another. "Some were carried away lifeless; and some, rushing forwards, almost ere the life of their beloved ruler was extinct, cut off pieces of his garments, as precious relics; and his hair was divided, out of great veneration, as for a martyr."

And thus perished Jacob Leisler, the most renowned of the early New York merchants; in fact, the earliest founder of its maritime wealth. After public demonstrations of respect and approval, his remains were deposited in the old South Dutch Church. Subsequent to the great fire, in 1835, this burial-ground was broken up, and it would now be impossible to identify his grave; and not so much as a tablet exists, to testify to the virtue and public service of Jacob Leisler.*

* We are indebted to an eloquent and discriminating biography of Jacob Leisler, from the pen of Charles F. Hoffman, for the above abstract of his life; from which work, also, we have largely quoted. (See Sparks's American Biography, 2d series, Vol. 3. Boston: Little & Brown. 1844.)

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

POLICY OF INSURANCE—OWNERS AND UNDERWRITERS.

[We give below an accurate report of the case of Peters and *al.*, *vs.* the United States Insurance office, decided in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, December, 1844. The charge of the Chief Justice, which embraces points of great importance to owners and underwriters, is given at length by G. W. DEHON, Esq.]

John Peters and *al.*, *vs.* United States Insurance Company. This cause has been submitted to three successive juries who have been unable to agree upon a verdict, and was submitted to a fourth jury on Saturday last, who brought in a verdict for the defendants.

The cause occupied a week in the trial, and has excited great interest, from the extraordinary conflict of evidence which it exhibited, and from its having been so frequently before the Court, and it involved some questions of insurance law of great importance to ship owners and insurers.

The action was brought on the 28th May, 1840, on a policy of insurance made in December, 1833, by which the defendants insured $8,000 on the bark Olive, to Sumatra, from thence to port or ports in Europe, and thence to the United States.

The plaintiffs proved that the barque was newly coppered in November, 1832, with the best of English copper, and went a voyage to the coast of Sumatra, for pepper, and returned in November, 1833. That on her return, the copper was examined as far down as she was left by the tide, at the end of the Arch wharf, in Boston, and her copper appeared to be in good order and condition, and she appeared to need no repairs. That she sailed for Sumatra, on the voyage insured, in December, 1833, and arrived on the coast of Sumatra some time in April, 1834. That during the passage out, and while on the coast, she experienced some very severe weather, but none that occasioned any particular damage. That while on the coast where she lay about four months, she began to leak badly, and that the leak gradually increased. That she left the coast of Sumatra in September, 1834, and sailed for St. Helena, where she remained three or four days; and left there for Gibraltar, where she arrived in January, 1835. That during the voyage to St. Helena, and thence to Gibraltar, she leaked so badly as to keep the crew at the pumps night and day. That on her arrival at Gibraltar, the crew refused to go further until she was repaired. That a survey was then had which reported that her copper was off in several places on her bottom; that it was off both sides of her bow and stern, and that it was worn all along the water line. That the fore foot was broken and wormeaten, the false keel much wormeaten, and damaged in several places, and the stern-post shaken. That the planks at the bows where the copper was off, were much wormeaten, and that the leak appeared to be principally where the planks were eaten by worms; and recommended re-coppering, and other repairs, to the amount of $6,000, to recover which this action was brought.

Some six years after the surveys were made, the depositions of one of the surveyors and of the consul were taken, and they testified that the damage to the vessel appeared to have been owing to the united effects of hard service and severe weather; and the consul added, striking on the rocks; and the others that she appeared to have been aground, and the surveyor also testified that the copper did not appear to have been originally of the best quality. The captain, in a deposition given about six years after his return, testified that he examined the bottom of the vessel at Gibraltar, and that it looked as if she had been aground; but that no such fact had ever been reported to him, nor had he ever heard that she had struck during the voyage.

The plaintiffs also produced two of the crew who were in the Olive on the voyage insured, and also on the previous voyage; who testified that on the first voyage, while on the coast of Sumatra, in a gale of wind, the Olive lost her three cables and anchors, but sustained no other damage. That on the second voyage, after laying on the coast about two months, the cables were slipped by order of the second mate, then in command, the master being ashore, to run for safe anchorage in a gale of wind; that soon after the cables were slipped, the vessel struck a reef or sand bar twice, once at the bow, and once at the stern, so as to make her tremble, and shake them from their feet. That the copper on the vessel's bows was in good condition on the coast, and they saw and heard of no defect in it. That she began to leak afterwards, one stating it to be about eight days after, and the other about the last of her being on the coast. That she leaked so badly, the crew at St. Helena refused to do duty, unless the master would obtain extra hands

there, which he consented to do; and that again at Gibraltar they refused to go to sea in the barque, till repaired. On cross-examination, they testified that they had never mentioned to the captain or any other person the circumstances that she struck, until they told Mr. John Peters of it in 1842, and had never been asked concerning it, till he asked them in 1842, if she struck on the voyage.

The plaintiffs also put in an affidavit of Mr. Peters, made in 1842, that the log-book was lost; and further proved that it was usual to send a vessel to the East Indies and Sumatra, two voyages, on the same copper.

The defendants proved by General Tyler, that on the return of the vessel, 6th July, 1834, the protest, surveys, bills of expenses, and log-book, were placed in his hands by the plaintiffs to adjust the loss; that he made a written report that the loss appeared to have arisen from worms, and from the wearing out of the copper; and that there was no evidence of the vessel ever having struck the bottom, in any of the documents submitted, and that in his opinion the insurers were not liable. That this opinion was communicated to both parties, and that it was not then asserted by any one that the vessel had struck anywhere during the voyage. That this opinion was apparently acquiesced in by the plaintiffs; and he heard no more of the claim till the writ was brought, 28th May, 1840. The defendants then produced the second mate, and one of the crew of the barque Olive, on the voyage insured, who testified that the mate was in command of the barque when she slipped her cable on the coast; that they recollected the occasion perfectly, and that they were positive the vessel did not strike a reef or bar, at that, or any other time during the voyage; and that they never heard any intimation of her having struck, till they heard about two years since that two of the crew had so testified. That they knew shortly before the arrival of the barque on the coast, that her copper was off in places on the bows, and that they had seen it when they were out on the bowsprit; and the mate testified he had told the captain of it, and that it was common deck talk that she was running off her copper. The mate also testified that he had charge of the log-book at the time the vessel was said to have struck, but that no such entry had been made therein; and the seamen testified that he had stated these facts before he knew what the other members of the crew had stated to any one. The defendant also proved by several ship-masters and others expert in such matters, that though the ordinary duration of copper was from two to three years, it not unfrequently wore out in from twelve to twenty months; and would then be found in places extremely thin, in other places honey-combed, and in others good. That it generally wore first at the bows and along the water line, but was often found off at the stern when it appeared good amidships. That there was no test by which to discover the quality of copper but by its wear; and that frequently copper from the same lot, and on the same vessel, wore very differently. That they knew of no difference in the wear of American, English, and other foreign copper. That in their opinion the facts set forth in the surveys and captain's deposition, indicated the copper was worn out. The defendants further proved that the false keel and the lower part of the fore-foot which are never coppered, are always wormeaten after a voyage to the coast of Sumatra; and that in that condition, if the vessel when loaded, rested on any hard substance, she would very likely damage her false keel, and the lower part of the fore-foot. And that it was not uncommon to see those parts bruised and broken, where they were wormeaten. Defendants proved further that this vessel brought in a load of pepper to Arch wharf in November, 1833, from her first voyage, and there drew from 15 to 16 feet of water; that when unloaded she drew 12 feet; and that the depth of water, at Arch wharf, at low water, was only 10 to 11 feet, and that the bottom is what is called a "hard bottom."

Chief Justice Shaw charged the jury that the case before them was one of great interest, that there had been several trials at great expense to parties, and it was of great importance that a verdict should be obtained. That the contract on which the claim was made, was one extremely beneficial, if not essential, to the commercial world.

That it was important that the law should be administered in reference to it, in accordance with well settled rules.

That the insurers were not bound for all losses, and to make good all repairs; otherwise, sooner or later, they must pay for every vessel; and in consequence, either the business of insurance would be destroyed, or the premium would be so enhanced, that merchants could not avail themselves of insurance.

That the insurers undertake to insure only against dangers out of the common and ordinary course; not for such as occur by ordinary wear and tear, or which can be foreseen and provided against. That the owner was bound to have his ship sea-worthy; equipped in all respects suitably for the voyage, before the insurers became liable at all under their policy. That this obligation on the part of owners extended to the whole voyage; so that the vessel must be fitted at the outset, in a manner to endure the service of the entire voyage, proportioned to its length, and the nature of the maritime enterprise on which the

vessel is employed. That if a ship is to be sent into a sea which worms are known to infest, she must be not only apparently, but actually protected against them, in a manner to preserve her from their ravages during the whole time she is exposed to them; and that if she be not so protected, whether the owner knew it or not, insurers are not liable if loss ensues in consequence. That a loss occasioned by worms ordinarily is not a peril of the sea, within the meaning of the policy, but is an ordinary, common, foreseen and certain danger, against which the owner is bound to provide, and is in the nature of wear and tear.

That the protection against worms by copper or other means, is a condition to be performed by the owner; and if he does not perform it, then the contract of the insurer is void; just as if such a condition had been inserted in terms in the policy; and the premium, if paid, may be recovered back by the owner.

That a vessel might be seaworthy for a short summer voyage with less equipment than for a long and wintry voyage; that it therefore depended much on the duration and nature of the maritime enterprise, whether a vessel was seaworthy.

The question in this case is whether the examination and repairs at Gribraltar were rendered necessary by an extraordinary peril incurred on the voyage insured. Both parties admit that the great cause of the leak was worms, and that independently of that there would not have been occasion for the examination and repairs at Gibraltar. But plaintiffs say that though the cause of the leak was worms, yet that the copper came off in consequence of her striking, and thereby the worms gained access. Now, in regard to this, if the jury are of opinion that the copper was removed by striking on this voyage, and the worms got in before the loss of copper could be discovered and repaired, then the striking would be the actual and immediate cause of the loss, and the insurers would be liable.

But if the jury are of opinion that the striking did not occur on this voyage, or if it did, that the copper was not removed thereby, but that it came off from decay, and the worms thereby got in, then the insurers are not liable; for the worms would be the proximate cause of the loss, and for losses by worms, in such case, the insurers are not liable.

The presumption of law is that if on examination at the outset of the voyage, the vessel appears in good condition as to copper and otherwise, she was seaworthy. This presumption, however, is slight, and may be rebutted by any evidence, to show she was not in such condition.

If a vessel sail apparently in good order, and is never heard from, the circumstance is so out of the common course of things, that she is presumed to have perished by peril of the sea. But if she be lost and the crew be saved, then no such presumption arises, because the captain and crew must be able to state facts enough to enable a jury to determine whether the ships were lost by peril of the sea or in consequence of want of seaworthiness. And in this case the rule claimed by the plaintffs, and usually applied to a missing vessel, does not apply; they are bound to satisfy you reasonably that the loss of copper and leak were caused by a sea peril incurred on the voyage insured; and if defendants have put in evidence tending to show that there was no such peril incurred, adequate to cause the loss, then it is for the jury to say on the whole evidence whether the loss did arise form a peril insured against and on this voyage or not.

The great questions then are—1st, whether the copper was sufficient for the second voyage; or 2d, whether the vessel struck, and if so, in a manner to remove the copper in season to let in the worms, so as to produce the leak testified to.

As to the first question, the jury have the testimony of persons of skill and experience in the manufacture, use, and wear of copper, who have given much valuable information on this subject.

Copper is proved to be of very uncertain duration, and portions from the same lot sometimes wear very differently. It is proved generally to wear first at the bows and along the water line; that on the stern is less exposed to wear, but is not necessarily found on there, if off at the bows, as the witnesses state that it is put on thinner there to equalize the wear. Defendant's evidence, on this matter, could come only from experts, and they have produced experienced and skilful persons, entitled to confidence from their knowledge and experience on these subjects—and it is for the jury to weigh this evidence. If the copper was off in several places on the bottom and on the water line, and the stern and bow, the natural presumption would seem to be that it came off by wear and decay; and so if it came off early in the second voyage.

In this connection, the time the leak commenced is important, because the copper in part must have come off before the worms could get in; they must have some time to work to make her leak badly.

The evidence on this point is conflicting. Two witnesses swear the copper was off the bows shortly before she reached the coast, and that they told of it; and two, that they never saw or heard of it. The jury will judge which of the four are to be believed. The

jury will consider their manner of testifying, and which best conforms to the other facts proved, the previous wear of the copper and its appearance and condition at Gibraltar; and decide upon the whole evidence in reference to the copper.

The other question is whether she struck; and if so, whether in such a manner, and at such time as to remove the copper in season for worms to get in. Two witnesses swear she did strike, and two that she did not, with apparently equal opportunity for observation.

The captain says he did not know it, and that he never heard of it, and it is alleged to have occurred in his absence. The log is not produced, but defendants produce the mate, who kept it, and he says no such thing occurred or was recorded. The protest is usually made up from the log, and no such fact is mentioned in the protest at Gibraltar, or in the surveys. Here, too, the jury will compare the witnesses. The time of the leak, if it could be fixed, might go far in effect to settle the question.

The witnesses differ. The captain fixes the leak about two months after being on the coast, and so does another of plaintiffs' witnesses. The third fixes it at the last part of the time. The defendants' witnesses say it was about three weeks before leaving the coast of Sumatra, and tell to what places the vessel subsequently went.

If this fact of the time of the leak is fixed by any other circumstances, you will then be able to judge whether they confirm or contradict the witnesses of defendants or the plaintiffs, and which of them coincide with the general tenor of the testimony in the cause. And you can then judge what caused the removal of the copper, and whether the worms got in, in consequence of its being taken off by striking or wearing out.

The burthen of proof on the whole evidence is on the plaintiffs to prove the copper was removed by peril of the sea, and if not reasonably satisfied on the weight of the evidence that it was so removed, you must find in that particular a verdict for defendants.

If the vessel leaked considerably shortly before leaving the coast, and it takes any time for worms to eat in so as to make a vessel leak badly, then the striking, if it occurred, would not account for the leak; and if she struck so as to injure only the fore-foot and false keel, without causing the removal of the copper elsewhere, as some witnesses say it would not, so as to let in the worms, then it would not account for the leak.

Some of the witnesses say the bottom looked as if she had struck; others that it looked as if she had touched or been aground; and defendants do not deny she had been aground, but contend it was when loaded at the end of Arch wharf, which they say would break and damage a false keel and the lower part of the fore-foot, when wormeaten, as it is testified these must have been on the first voyage, those parts never being coppered.

The question for the jury is, whether the appearances she presented, would be caused by striking a reef or bar, or by settling down on a bottom. Shortly before sailing on this second voyage, she drew 14 to 16 feet of water, and the depth of water was 11 to 12 where she lay loaded, so that she might ground on the bottom. The jury are to judge whether this would produce the appearances exhibited at Gibraltar, or whether, taking all the evidence together, they conclude it must have been caused by striking.

The questions are peculiarly questions of fact for the jury, and they are to judge upon the whole evidence, recollecting that the plaintiffs are bound to prove to the reasonable satisfaction of the jury, that the injury was the direct consequence of perils incurred on the voyage insured. And all material facts on which the plaintiffs rely, and from which inferences are to be drawn to make out their case, must be proved to the reasonable satisfaction of the jury.

PROMISSORY NOTES—INSOLVENT LAW OF MASSACHUSETTS.

In the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, an action brought by Inglis & Scott, merchants of New York, *vs.* Baker, of Boston, to recover the amount of three promissory notes. The defence was a discharge under the insolvent law of Massachusetts. The plaintiffs contended as matter of law, that these notes were not released by that discharge, on the ground that such a discharge cannot affect contracts made with the residents of other states; and evidence was offered to show, that the firm of Inglis & Scott, of New York, was composed of William Inglis and D. G. Scott, neither of whom ever resided in Massachusetts. The defendant then offered evidence to show, that the goods for which these notes were given, were purchased of a house in Boston, doing business under the style of Inglis & Scott, and that John Inglis, then of Boston, was a member of the firm, and carried on the business. The legal point was reserved. The only question left the jury was, whether John Inglis was a member of the Boston firm of Inglis & Scott, or whether that firm was a branch of the New York firm of the same name, and carried on by John Inglis as the agent of the New York house. The jury were instructed that if they believed that John Inglis was a member of the Boston firm, and resided here, then the notes being given to that firm for goods purchased of them, the verdict ought to be for the defendant. The jury returned a verdict for the defendant.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

MONEY AND OTHER MARKETS—EXPORT OF COTTON GOODS FROM GREAT BRITAIN, AND AVERAGE PRICE OF CLOTH, YARN, AND COTTON WOOL—LOANS AND SPECIE OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS—DEBTS OF THE STATES, THEIR REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, ETC., 1844—PUBLIC DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA—FINANCES OF ILLINOIS, INDIANA, ETC.—PRICES OF STOCKS IN NEW YORK, 1844.

THE markets have presented very little actual change during the month, although there is every appearance that the stringency which the money market has evinced for some months, will now be relaxed, and the rate of discount become less. The operation of the government funds, in being withdrawn from the market, has ceased to affect the discounts of the banks unfavorably; and the state of affairs in Europe, by the last advices, is such as to warrant the belief that prices of the raw materials, especially cotton, are once more in the ascendant; and that, while the imports into this country are likely to be less, the enhanced value of our exports will probably exceed that of last year. The price of cotton, in England, has undoubtedly seen its lowest point; and, at our latest dates, had already considerably advanced in prices. During the past six months of the cotton year, it has been undoubtedly true that cotton has ruled at rates so low, as to yield no profit to the planters. This fact, alone, (so important an item in our general trade, internal and external, is cotton,) is sufficient to produce that derangement which the present state of business presents, and which will be remedied by the progressive advance of cotton. The export cotton trade of England is larger and more profitable than it has been for years previously—that is to say, greater money-values have been exported in former years, but the quantity of cotton now worked up is greater than ever before, and at a larger margin of profit to the manufacturers, notwithstanding that the money-value of goods is less than in some former years. This arises from the fact that the raw material, and cost of production, is lower than ever; while the price of goods has advanced from the low point of depression to which they reached last summer. The following shows the value of cotton goods exported from Great Britain, with the average price of cloth, yarn, and upland fair cotton, in each year:—

EXPORT COTTON GOODS, AND PRICE OF 40 IN POWER LOOM CLOTH, WATER TWIST, AND UPLAND FAIR COTTON, IN LIVERPOOL.

Years.	Cotton Goods. £	Yarn. £	Total. £	L'm cl'ths, 66 reed. s.	d.	40 Water Twist. d.	Cotton. d.
1836,.....	18,511,692	6,120,366	24,632,058	16	9	16½	10⅜
1837,.....	13,640,188	6,955,942	20,596,140	14	0	12½	6⅜
1838,.....	16,715,857	7,431,869	24,147,726	13	6	11¼	6½
1839,.....	17,692,182	6,858,193	24,561,375	12	10	12	8
1840,.....	17,567,310	7,101,308	24,668,618	11	8	10¾	5¾
1841,.....	16,232,510	7,266,968	23,499,478	10	3	10¼	6½
1842,.....	13,910,084	7,752,670	21,662,754	9	1	9½	5⅜
1843,.....	16,248,759	7,191,870	23,440,629	8	10½	8½	4⅜
1844, 10 mo.,	15,930,072	6,157,439	22,087,511	9	5½	9	4⅞

It will be observed that the exports of 1843 were of a higher value, while the price of goods was less than in the previous year; showing a large excess in the quantities exported. During the past ten months, the exports are still larger, at improved prices. It is also observable that the price of the raw material bears a less proportion to the price of the goods and yarn, than in former years. The year 1838 was one of the most prosperous to manufacturers, because of the low price of cotton, as compared to cloths. During the past year, the same proportionate prices have existed, while a great reduction in the cost of production has been effected. The home trade of England is also rapidly improving, on similar terms. At the same time, the low prices of the raw material having, on

this side, been productive of great derangement, has resulted in efforts to reduce the supply, which cannot but have a beneficial effect upon the prices, even although no positive diminution in the crop should be effected. The mere checking of the increase will be sufficient to advance the rates in the present promising state of the markets.

In the meantime, from causes alluded to in former numbers, the money market of New York is undergoing considerable pressure, consequent upon the difficulty of making collections in the interior, on sales of goods made on credit last year. The import of goods, and the duties, during the past year, have been, monthly, as follows, with the duty:—

MONTHLY IMPORT OF GOODS, AND DUTIES COLLECTED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Dut. Goods.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.	Duties.
January,.....	$6,194,657	$415,993	$73,204	$6,683,854	$1,852,577
February,.....	6,023,768	548,326	55,417	6,627,511	2,131,926
March,.....	4,641,334	537,883	53,008	5,237,225	1,641,140
April,.....	5,638,873	1,754,237	70,573	7,463,683	1,805,706
May,.....	4,667,950	1,913,774	243,424	6,825,148	1,793,824
June,.....	5,229,941	529,042	64,297	5,823,280	1,882,984
July,.....	7,182,196	666,595	157,121	8,005,912	2,189,428
August,.....	9,970,572	1,187,836	100,388	11,258,796	3,085,352
September,.....	7,227,664	817,108	62,945	8,107,715	2,432,751
October,.....	3,846,889	711,240	55,079	4,613,208	1,260,203
November,.....	1,640,150	345,827	40,300	2,026,277	557,490
December,.....	2,657,274	288,729	130,608	3,076,011	834,445
Total, 1844,.	$64,921,268	$9,715,590	$1,106,364	$76,748,620	$21,467,826
Jan., 1845,...	5,581,544	728,618	37,011	6,347,173	1,687,024

These values are, of course, the foreign cost; and the market value is constituted of the cost and charges, and duty added. These are as follows:—

Dutiable goods, cost,.....	$64,921,288	
Free "	9,716,588	
Total foreign cost,.....	$74,637,876	
Expenses and charges, 10 per cent,.....	7,463,787	
Total cost,.....		$82,101,663
" duties,.....		21,457,830
Total market value of imports,.....		$103,559,493

A very large portion of this has been cash, paid out of the New York capital employed in commerce—the duties are so, altogether. This large amount could not be sold for cash. On the other hand, full $30,000,000 has been sold on long credits; and to collect which, great difficulty has been experienced—leaving a greatly reduced amount of capital in the city, and consequently an enhanced demand for discounts, and an improvement in the rate of money. This has been enhanced by the movement of the government deposits, proceeding from the customs. The deposit banks, in the fore part of the year, were enabled to extend their loans to a considerable degree, involving a corresponding contraction when those deposits were withdrawn. The specie in the vaults, and the loans of the New York city banks, have been as follows:—

	Specie.			Loans.		
	Gov. banks.	18 oth. bks.	Tot., 22 bks.	Gov. banks.	18 other bks.	Total.
Jan'ry, 1843,	$2,927,891	$4,116,114	$7,044,005	$9,285,973	$19,061,758	$28,347,731
August, "	5,845,515	6,753,666	12,599,181	12,630,123	21,460,076	34,090,219
Nov'r, "	3,563,936	6,580,085	10,144,021	12,313,222	22,041,273	33,454,495
Feb'y, 1844,	3,445,286	5,781,987	9,227,373	13,345,519	25,518,939	38,864,458
May, "	3,335,045	4,923,586	8,258,631	15,018,793	25,020,142	40,038,935
August, "	4,337,634	4,650,858	8,988,492	15,747,228	25,929,123	41,676,351
Nov'r, "	3,493,323	4,383,606	7,876,929	14,863,298	25,156,399	40,019,697
Feb'y, 1845,	1,927,175	3,844,169	5,771,344	11,869,515	25,006,616	36,875,131

During the year ending February, 1845, the eighteen banks have varied their line of discounts to a very small extent, only—the difference is within one million—while the government banks increased their loans $2,400,000 in the six months ending in August, and contracted them nearly $4,000,000 in the last six months; adding much to the pressure at a time when, from causes above indicated, private capital had become absorbed to a considerable extent, in selling goods on credit. The low point of the contraction is now, in all probability, reached; and any movement on their part will probably be one of expansion, more especially as restored credit, consequent upon the resumption of their dividends by some of the delinquent states, will probably be followed by increased investment of British capital on this side of the water. The current rate of money, here, being 7 per cent, against 2 per cent in London, money will, like every other commodity, seek the point where it is most valuable.

The month of February, 1845, has been marked by the resumption of her dividends by the great state of Pennsylvania, whose debt is the largest of any of the states of the Union, but whose means of paying are ample. Her failure was owing neither to a want of ability, nor to a want of means to pay. It grew entirely out of a bad financial system, which induced the contraction of large loans for the construction of public works, depending entirely upon the success of those works for the means of paying the interest and principal of the debt. The only safe rule, in making public loans, is to provide means, by taxation, for the payment of the interest, and discharge of the principal, at the time the loan is made. There is then no danger of failure. On the other hand, it has been the case that this necessary rule was always neglected by the delinquent states. They borrowed money to enter into speculations; and, at the moment of distress and chagrin consequent upon the failure of their speculations, they were called upon to submit to taxes for the repayment of money they knew to have been squandered, and from which but little good is to be derived. We believe there is no nation on the earth, except our own, which would have voluntarily paid taxes for such a purpose, under such circumstances. When public works are projected, and money is to be spent, and sanguine hopes are generally entertained that the enterprise will be successful, is the fitting moment to levy the taxes. It has, however, proved to be the case, that, notwithstanding all the blunders and false steps of the several legislatures, the people have at last consented to be taxed, and have paid enough to redeem the honor of Pennsylvania. This movement will be followed by the resumption of several others of the delinquent states. The following is a table of the debts of the states in January, 1845, according to official reports made to the legislatures of this session:—

DEBTS OF THE STATES, WITH THEIR REVENUE, AND EXPENDITURE FOR ORDINARY PURPOSES, FOR 1844.

States.	Direct debt.	Indirect debt.	Total.	Revenue.	Expend.
Louisiana,*.....	$1,600,000	$15,350,000	$16,850,000	$972,177	$616,684
Alabama,.....	9,232,555	4,200,000	13,432,555	243,650	120,098
Arkansas,*.....	3,500,000	.....	3,500,000	288,415	163,005
Tennessee,.....	3,260,416	.....	3,260,416	271,823	261,416
Kentucky,.....	4,269,000	150,000	4,419,000	392,422	366,379
Georgia,.....	1,725,138	.....	1,725,138	307,917	295,999
South Carolina,..	3,182,992	.....	3,182,992	306,831	347,704
Missouri,.....	922,261	.....	922,261	217,654	193,307
Illinois,*.....	11,454,669	3,179,200	14,633,869	145,645	190,000
Indiana,*.....	12,218,000	2,227,500	14,445,500	41,000	98,037
Ohio,.....	17,028,683	2,248,069	19,276,751	277,157	194,374
Maryland,*.....	15,094,334	92,401	15,186,785	272,119	490,000
Maine,.....	1,590,921	141,166	1,732,097	368,090	289,087
Massachusetts,...	1,022,339	6,250,000	7,272,339	447,736	462,844
New York,.....	26,348,412	1,920,000	28,268,412	795,051	1,003,753
Pennsylvania,*...	36,250,493	4,453,373	40,703,866	1,167,440	858,315

DEBTS OF THE STATES, WITH THEIR REVENUES, etc.—Continued.

States.	Direct debt.	Indirect debt.	Total.	Revenue.	Expend.
Michigan,.....	$3,171,392	$905,785	$4,077,177	$405,824	$455,189
Virginia,.....	5,968,047	1,392,884	7,360,932	810,366	884,293
Mississippi,*.....	2,500,000	6,000,000	7,600,000	150,000	140,000
Florida,*.....	3,900,000	950,000	4,850,000	98,000	100,000
Total,.....	$164,239,652	$49,460,378	$212,700,090	$7,979,317	$7,530,484
U. S. Governm't,	19,076,188	.....	19,076,188	30,381,700	32,958,827

This gives the whole present debts of the several states; of which eight, with the territory of Florida making nine, (marked *,) have failed, and Pennsylvania has again resumed. The debt of Pennsylvania is composed as follows:—

PUBLIC DEBT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

	Funded.	Relief loan.	Total.
6 per cent stocks,.....	$4,370,916 21	$1,175,000 00	$5,545,916 21
5 " "	34,721,534 46	171,636 00	34,893,170 46
4½ " "	200,000 00	91,542 00	.....
	$39,292,450 67	$1,438,178 00	$40,439,086 67
Due domestic creditors,.....		104,384 00	104,384 93
Total debt,.....			$40,543,471 60
Annual interest payable Bank of Pennsylvania,.....			1,747,030 12
Due in February,.....		$873,515 06	
" August,.....		873,515 06	
			1,747,030 12
Interest upon interest certificates,.....			195,761 68
Total annual interest,.....			$1,942,791 80

In order to show the progress of taxation more particularly, we take the amount levied and collected in each year, the tolls of public works, and the money expended for purposes of education:—

Years.	Levy.	Collected.	Tolls.	Total taxes and tolls.	Education expense.
1841,.....	$416,794	$33,292	$1,079,896	$1,113,188	$365,766
1842,.....	659,512	486,635	920,499	1,407,134	315,372
1843,.....	945,000	553,911	1,019,401	1,573,312	408,694
1844,.....	945,000	751,210	1,164,325	1,915,535	290,917

The two mill levy of last year yielded this year 40 per cent more money, under present regulation. Now, by the above table, it appears that the means of the state, applicable to interest, have increased $615,629 over last year, without any additional taxation.

The late treasurer estimated the means for 1845 as follows:—

Receipts for the year ending Nov. 30, 1845,.....	$3,005,100 00
Balance Nov. 30, 1844,.....	663,851 88
" in canal treasury,.....	39,497 00
Total,.....	$3,708,448 88
Expenditures, including interest,.....	3,061,013 56
Balance, Nov., 1845,.....	$647,435 32

These means depend upon the vigor with which the taxes are collected under the new law, and no doubt is entertained but that they will be ample—the more so, that the credit of a new administration is now involved in maintaining the payments. The state of Michigan will be the next to resume her payments upon her *acknowledged debt.* This will take place in January, 1846, on the interest accruing for six months, from July, 1845. The acknowledged debt is small, as indicated in the foregoing table; the interest falling

due January, 1846, amounting to $50,000, but may be raised to $90,000, including the interest due on the bonds issued to the late United States Bank. To meet these payments, the law of 1843 pledged so much of the proceeds of the Central and Southern railroads, after paying for the iron of the former to Marshall, and of the latter to Hillsdale, as would be necessary. Hence, there is but little doubt but that the payments will be made, the railroad receipts being already sufficient for that purpose.

The affairs of Illinois next present themselves in a favorable train. We have, in former numbers, alluded to the position of the canal law, authorizing the borrowing of $1,600,000, to complete the great canal, on pledge of that work, and the lands belonging to it. After a long period of delay, the bondholders here, and in Europe, have finally subscribed the whole amount, on condition that the state pays, by a small tax, part of the interest on the whole debt. Simultaneously with this agreement, a bill has been introduced into the Illinois legislature, levying a tax for the payment of 1 per cent on the whole debt, with the exception of the bonds known as the "M'Alister and Stebbins bonds;" the first payment to take place on the 1st July, 1846, and to be continued thereafter. This law is that which is required to perfect the arrangement with the bondholders; and as soon as it is approved, the board of trustees will be appointed—one by the "Boston committee," on behalf of the London creditors; one by the New York creditors, and one by the governor. The prosecution of the canal will then progress. The cost of that magnificent work, when finished, will be as follows:—

Sum actually disbursed,	$5,039,248
Liabilities of the canal,	1,063,945
Cost of the canal at this time,	$6,103,193
Sum required to complete it,	1,600,000
Cost when complete, under the new law,	$7,703,193

The present debt of the canal is composed as follows:—

Scrip and interest to Dec. 1st, 1844,	$411,046 57
Debt not bearing interest,	301,678 70
Ninety day checks,	316 00
Due contractors,	86,692 37
Damages on private property,	23,587 96
Scrip issued by Gov. Ford, in payment of damages to contractors,	226,353 72
Interest due upon the same to Nov. 1st, 1844,	14,000 00
Total,	$1,063,675 32

The completion of this work will add to the resources of the people of Illinois, while the sale of the lands along its border will more than discharge the debt incurred for its completion, and leave the nett revenues of the noble avenue to discharge the improvement debt, and ultimately relieve the people from taxation.

Indiana, during the past session, has done nothing towards paying her debts. The state is dreadfully embarrassed by the circulation of an unconstitutional state paper, which circulates as money. The quantity of this stuff is as follows:—

	Issued.	Redeemed.	Outstanding Nov. 1, 1844.
Scrip,	$669,980	$164,530	$535,450
Treasury notes, 6 per cent,	1,500,000	872,665	633,755
Bank scrip,	722,640	210,730	511,910
Total,	$2,892,620	$1,247,925	$1,681,115

While this depreciated paper fills the channels of circulation, and forms the medium in which taxes are paid, no effectual movement can be made towards the payment of the state interest. The creditors have, however, intimated that they would be glad to receive

a payment of even a small part now, as an earnest of paying the whole by and by. This intimation was misrepresented, by a designing agent, to signify that the creditors would consent to take a payment of 3 per cent, in full of 5 per cent due them. The disappointment attending the discovery of this trick, prevented any *bona fide* movement at the present session. There is but little doubt, however, but that, at the next session, a small tax will be laid to commence the payments, and the deficit be funded, bearing interest, up to some future year, when the whole will be resumed. This is the more likely, that there is every probability of a grant of land from Congress, sufficient to complete the White Water canal connection with the Wabash and Erie, forming a noble work, that must, sooner or later, yield a large revenue towards the state expenses.

In Maryland, no effective steps have been taken towards redeeming her honor; but there is every hope that something may be done. In Louisiana, Arkansas, and Florida, the money for which the governments are responsible was borrowed for the purpose of being constituted the capital of banking institutions. These banks were what are called property banks, from the mode of their organization. The bonds of the state were issued to the banks, and the stockholders were required to deposit mortgages of their plantations to double the amount. The bonds were then endorsed by the banks, and sold mostly in London. The proceeds were divided among the stockholders, *pro rata*, as loans, on pledge of the mortgages. The banks then issued circulating bills, and received deposits to make regular discounts. All these institutions failed, of course, and the state governments have done nothing towards the payment of the bonds; which must depend, in a great measure, upon what can be realized from the property held by the banks.

It is, however, very apparent that the period for a return of all these states to their payments is rapidly approaching; and that time will be hastened by the great desire apparent among European capitalists to renew their confidence and investments, whenever they can receive any encouragement to do so. The loan made to the state of Illinois is a remarkable evidence of this, and evinces a great change in public opinion from the fall of 1841, when an agent of the United States federal government in vain sought to borrow a few millions in Europe. That loan was afterwards made at home, and has since been paid, principal and interest. It was not, however, from any supposition that the United States was not good for the loan; but from the idea that the mortification attending such a loss of credit would operate upon the states, and induce payments. It has now become pretty well understood that the want of ability, and of a proper organization of the state finances, is a greater obstacle than any supposed want of will to the payments.

Prices and Values of Leading Stocks in the New York Market.

Annexed, are very accurate tables, in relation to the prices and actual values of the leading stocks sold upon the New York stock exchange. They are compiled and calculated for the Merchants' Magazine, by J. F. Entz, Esq., a gentleman whose statistical works have frequently been before the public, and reflect great credit on his skill and accuracy. His management of the complicated accounts of the New York Life and Trust, since its disasters, has contributed greatly to its rapid recovery, and the resumption of its dividends. The tables embrace the United States, and New York state and city stocks; showing their present value to command 5 per cent interest per annum, and their monthly market prices during the past year. Also, the leading railroad, the bank, and insurance stocks; showing the rate of dividends declared by those companies, and the months in which they are paid.

UNITED STATES, STATE, AND CITY STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

Stocks.	Present value, to realize 5 per cent.	Jan'ry.	Feb'ry.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'ber.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
United States Loan, 6, 1862,.....	112.25	*113½	115½	112½	114	116¼	113	*115	115	116	119	116	113½
" " 5, 1853,.....	100.	*102⅔	103⅓	101⅔	102⅓	104½	102	*103⅓	103½	104½	106	104⅓	103⅔
New York " 7, 1848,.....	107.47	*107¾	108	106	*106	108¼	106¾	*108⅓	.....	109¼	*108½	108½	106
" " 7, 1849,.....	109.95	*107¼	108	106	*107	109¼	107⅓	*108⅓	108½	109	*109	109⅓	106¾
" " 6, 1854,.....	108.40	*105	107	106½	*104⅔	109	108	*108⅓	.....	109	*.....	.....	.....
" " 6, 1860,.....	111.86	*106	110	108	*107	109⅓	109	*109	.....	110	*112	112	.....
" " 6, 1862,.....	112.81	*108	119	107	*106½	110	107½	*110	110½	110½	*112½	105	101
" " 5½, 1860,.....	106.14	*103	104½	102½	*102½	104	102⅓	*.....	.....	.....	*105½	105⅓	104
" " 5½, 1861,.....	106.40	*103½	104¼	102⅔	*102½	104	103⅓	*.....	.....	.....	*106	106	104
" " 5½, 1865,.....	107.27	*103	104	102⅔	*102⅔	103	102⅔	*.....	.....	.....	*.....	.....	.....
" " 5, 1845,.....	100.04	* 99	100½	99½	* 99½	100	100	*101	101½	101	*101⅓	102	100
" " 5, 1848,.....	100.13	*100	100¼	100	*100	100¼	100	*.....	101½	101½	*.....	102½	101
" " 5, 1850,.....	100.20	*100½	101	100	*100¼	100	100	*.....	101⅔	101⅓	*102⅓	104	101
" " 5, 1855,.....	100.33	*101¼	102½	100	*100¾	102	100⅓	*103	103½	.....	*106	104⅓	103
" " 5, 1858,.....	100.39	*101¼	102⅓	100	*100⅔	102⅓	100⅓	*103	102⅓	101⅔	*105½	104⅓	103¼
" " 5, 1860,.....	100.43	*101	102⅓	100	*101	102	101	*.....	.....	.....	*.....	97⅛	103
" " 4½, 1849,.....	97.92	*.....	97½	.....	* 92	.....	.....	*.....	96	95	*.....	90	98
" " 4½, 1864,.....	93.91	*.....	.....	.....	*.....	.....	.....	.....	95	95	*.....	*.....	90
N. Y. City " 7, 1847,.....	105.71	.....	*102	101	100	*103	103	.....	*100½	102	103	*.....	.....
" " 7, 1852,.....	113.76	.....	*110	107	108	*109	109	108⅓	*109	108	.....	*109	110
" " 7, 1857,.....	120.15	110	*114⅓	113	110	*112½	110	113	*113	114	110	*115	.....
" Wat. " 5, 1858,.....	100.39	100	*100¾	100	98⅓	*100	100⅓	101¼	*100	101	102	*102	102½
" " 5, 1860,.....	100.43	99¾	*100¼	100	98⅓	*100⅓	100⅓	101¼	*100¾	101	101	*101½	102
" " 5, 1870,.....	100.56	99	*100⅓	99¾	97⅓	*100	100¼	101¼	*100	101⅓	101½	*101¾	102
" Fire " 5, 1868,.....	100.54	.....	*100	100	100	*.....	.....	100	*.....	.....	101⅓	*.....	.....

N. B.—The first column gives the value of the stock, so as to yield an interest of 5 per cent, accumulated every 6 months. The asterisk shows in which month the interest or dividend is paid.

RAILROADS, &c.—STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks, &c., at the New York Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

Railroads.	January.	Feb'ry.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	October.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
New York and Erie Railroad,.	15½	23	15	10	27½	19	22	24	24	32¾	30½	27½
Mohawk,.....	51½	57	56¾	71	74	60	63	60	62	66	54¼	58¾
Harlem,.....	43¼	51	62¾	76¼	83	72¾	72½	68	73½	72¼	64	64
Utica and Schenectady,.....	119	121½	121½	124	128	129	126½	127½	129	...	130	130
Utica and Syracuse,.....	114	113¾	.....	116	.....	117	120	116	.....	119¾	.....	116
Auburn and Syracuse,.....	110	.....	112½	.....	117	.....	.....	111	110	111	112	.....
Auburn and Rochester,.....	99¼	104½	103½	105	107½	107	106¾	107	108½	110¼	107	107½
Brooklyn and Jamaica,.....	75	75	75	75	82½	75	.....	80	85	90	.....	90
Long Island,.....	72	74	71⅝	74	87	80	78¼	81¾	83	82½	74½	75
New Jersey,.....	93	94½	93½	94¼	96	94½	.....	92¾	93	95	93½	93½
Paterson,.....	72¼	81¼	79	81¼	87	80	82	80	85	84½	78	78½
Providence and Stonington,....	33½	36½	36	47	52½	43	43½	43	45¼	51½	40¾	39
Norwich and Worcester,.....	34¼	36½	36	57¼	68	53½	57¼	62	72¼	83½	69¾	66¼
New Haven and Hartford,.....	...	70	70	77	87	83	89	86	86	89	85	57
Reading,.....	47¼	49	43½	45	56	50	49½	49½	52	54	41½	43¼
Western,.....	...	59	59	66	75	72¼	78¼	85	87	89¾	...	90
Ohio, 6 per cent, 1856,.....	* 96	97⅜	93¼	95¼	99½	95¼	*97	97¼	99	102½	98½	96
" 7 " domestic,.....	*104½	105	103	104	104¾	102	*104	104	105½	104½	102½	103
Kentucky, 6 per cent, 1841,....	*101½	103¼	100¼	102½	105¼	101	*102¼	101¾	102¼	104¾	102¾	103¼
" 5 p. c., pay. in N. Y.,	* 85	90	.....	.....	90	86	* 87	85	88	92½	.....	87½
Illinois bds., 6 per cent, special,	40⅜	43½	39¾	43½	51¾	49	49	45¼	43½	45	36¼	36
Indiana bds., doll., 5 per cent,..	37	39½	35¾	40	46¾	44⅜	44¾	44	43	44¾	35	34½
Pennsylvania, 5 per cent,.....	65	*70	62½	73¼	79¼	74½	.....	*71¾	71¼	73¾	67¼	73¼
Alabama, 5 "	80	84½	82	84	*79	.....	80	.....	80	81	*75	72½
Tennessee, 6 "	*100	105	100	102	103¼	102	*103	.....	102	105	104	100

N. B.—The * shows in which month interest or dividend is paid. The dividends of the Railroad Co.'s are not given, not being obtained in time.

BANK STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

Banks.	Dividends, p. c.		Jan'ry.	Feb'ry.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'r.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
Bank of New York,	4	4	117	118	120½	115	*	118¼	118	120¼	123	.....	*118	117
Manhattan bank,	.	.	80	85	88¼	88½	93½	91	92¼	94¼	93	94	91	90
Merchants',	3½	3½	105	105	105	106¾	109	*106½	107	106	109	100¾	106	*106½
Mechanics',	3½	3½	105	106½	107	104	*105	105½	107	107	109¾	106	*106	105
Union,	4	4	113	115	114	113	*114	114	114½	117½	118½	114	*114¾	114½
Bank of America,	3	3	*96	99	96	97	100	97	*97	97¼	98½	100½	100	97
City,	3½	3	103	105	104	103½	*	107½	105½	108	108	106	*105	105
Phœnix,	3	3	*90½	92	90	89	96¾	95	*91½	91½	92½	95	90	89
North River,	3½	3½	*100	104	104	102	105	106	*103	104	104	106	105	.....
Tradesman's,	5	5	*117	117½	117	.....	113	117	*117	117	117	112	117	120
Fulton,	5	5	112	112½	105	107	*111	112	112	116	110	110	*111½	112
Del. and Hudson Canal Co.,	4	4	109	111	112	112	124	*117¾	117	117	117	122	123	*118
Dry Dock,	.	.	45	65	.....	25	72	70	.....	.....	.....	65	.....	40
Butchers' and Drovers',	3½	4	107¼	*104	104	104	108	100	106	*106	110	.....	108	110
Mechanics' and Traders',	3½	3½	102	102	103	102	*100	100	103¼	100	100	.....	*100	.....
National,	3	3	100	100¼	101½	*93	97	.....	95	98½	.....	*100	99	99
Merchants' Exchange,	3½	3½	*106½	104	105	104	107	108	*103	103½	104½	106¼	106½	107
Leather Manufacturers',	3½	3½	106	*104½	105	103	106	106½	106¼	*	104	.....	103	103
Seventh Ward,	2½	2½	*1	76	87½	85	91¼	.....	*90	90	90	91	90	.....
State Bank of N. Y.,	2½	2½	86	89½	85	86	*87	84	85¼	84½	85	86	*83¼	83
Bank of Commerce, full,	3	3	*96½	97	97	98	101½	98	*98½	97¾	98	99	99¼	99½
" " scrip,	.	.	97½	98½	97	98	100	99	98	97½	98	99¼	99	98½
Mech. Bank. Association,	3½	3½	91	96	93	...	.....	*94	97¼	97¼	97¼	99¾	.....	*96
American Exchange,	2½	3	83½	85	83¼	85	*88	84	85½	84¼	86¼	84	*81	81¾
New York Gas Light Co.,	4½	4½	116½	114	115	115	*117	113	118	115	.....	114	*114	116
Manhattan "	3	3	91	*88	85	84	91	89	90	*88	90	90	89	87½

N. B.—The asterisk shows in which month the dividend is paid.

INSURANCE STOCKS.

Prices of Stocks offered at the New York Stock Exchange, at or near the end of each month, during the year 1844.

Companies.	Dividends, p. c.		Jan'ry.	Feb'ry.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept'r.	Oct'r.	Nov'r.	Dec'r.
Ætna,	5	4	.....	105	104	104	.....	*106	.....	103	104	106	105	*
City,	10	10	113	*111	112	111	112½	116	.....	*115	117	118	.....	.....
Eagle,	5	5	107	108½	108	*103	104	103	104	105½	107	*100	101	96
East River,	3½	3½	71	80	70	.....	79	*	.....	83	80	75	.....	.....
Equitable,	6	6	*99	100	102	102½	105	104	*	104	105½	106	106½	102
Firemen's,	4	3	106	108	106	*100	102½	102	103	104½	100	*97½	97½	96
Greenwich,	5	5	.....	*102	102	103	103	104½	97½	*104	105	105½	106	103
Howard,	8	8	107	112	109	112½	.....	*110	110	.....	.....	115	117	*
Jefferson,	10	10	126	*119	120	.....	118	130	130	*120	120	128	125	110
Manhattan,	10	3	106	109	110	108½	.....	*108	.....	115	114	117	100	*
Merchants' Fire,	4	5	*	93	92	.....	.....	100	*	.....	97	100	100	100
Mutual Fire,	5	4	105	105	.....	.....	.....	*98	.....	101½	100	103	.....	*95
New York Bowery,	10	10	130	131	133	136	138	*130	130	133	138	140	130	*130
" Contributionship,	10	3½	.....	99	.....	101	97	*100	103	105½	.....	104	.....	*90
" Fire,	10	4	97½	*	.....	.....	97	102½	95	*90	90	94	.....	90
" Guardian,	5	5	.....	100	.....	.....	*100½	100	104	104	106	107½	*106½	.....
North American,	5	5	.....	92	94	96	100	*94	.....	98½	.....	98	.....	*90
North River,	6	5	.....	.....	112	*108½	110	110	110	114	113½	*110	107½	.....
Trust Fire,	3½	3½	.....	.....	.....	63	*	.....	72	76	75	76	*	.....
United States,	6	8	*100	105	106	105	109	104	*	.....	105	105	.....	.....
Williamsburg,	5	5	65	70	71	72	80	*85	90	89	.....	.....	.....	*
N. Y. Life In. and Trust Co.,	.	3½	109½	.....	109	106	111	110	111	110	*112	120	115	117
Farmers' Loan and Trust Co.,	.	.	31¼	39	38½	42	52½	38½	40¼	39	42½	44½	36½	35½
Ohio Life Ins. and Trust Co.,	3½	3½	*94½	96	90	96	99½	97	*95½	95½	96½	99½	97½	98
Merchants' Exchange Co.,	.	.	10	12	10½	19	31	22	24	23	24½	25	20½	20½
Canton Co.,	.	.	29½	34½	32¼	45	64	34½	37½	37½	45¼	48	44½	43½

N. B.—The asterisk shows in which month the dividend is paid.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY COMPANY OF PHILADELPHIA.

We have received the twenty-second annual report of the directors of the Mercantile Library Company of Philadelphia, presented at a meeting of the stockholders, January 14th, 1845. It exhibits the affairs of the company in a prosperous condition. Its thronged rooms, (says the report,) during the whole of the past year, while they attest the great interest which the mercantile young men of the city feel in its welfare, indicates also the extent to which its usefulness has attained. The mental feast which it spreads nightly before its visiters, has not been proffered in vain; and the cause of sound morals has been promoted, refinement augmented, and intelligence visibly increased, by the wide range of action which is now embraced by the institution—results highly gratifying to the Christian, patriot, and the statesman. In the treasurer's report, the income of the present year is estimated at $1,920, and the current expenses, for the same period, at $1,650; showing a surplus of $270. It is further stated, in the report, that the society had suffered greatly, from its commencement, for the want of appropriate apartments. For many years past, the board kept before the members and the public the necessity for better accommodations; and in last year's report they made an earnest appeal for the necessary funds to enable them to erect an edifice which should be creditable alike to the association and the community. Their call, it seems, has been promptly responded to; and a sum was subscribed, in a few days, by the members and the public, amounting to $14,000; enabling the board (with the building fund which had already accrued) to close the purchase of a lot of ground, and to undertake, successfully, the erection of a chaste edifice, which has arisen, an honor and an ornament to the city of Philadelphia. The building, which is spoken of as eliciting universal admiration for its beautiful proportions, and the ample accommodations it affords, has cost about $18,000. The library of the association has been increased 221 volumes during the past year, and 10,938 volumes have been taken out for home perusal. The number of active members, at present, is 814; being an increase over last year of 117. It has been computed that there are at present on its shelves more works of a desirable character for every young man to peruse, than each could read, in the hours not necessarily devoted to business, in an entire century. With our hearty good wishes for the continued prosperity of this valuable institution, and a single extract from the report, we close our brief summary of its condition:—

"This valuable collection is constantly augmented by the purchase of such new works as the rapid press throws off from day to day. With such attractions, it is no less natural than gratifying, that its quiet rooms should win and retain large numbers of the knowledge-seeking young men of our city. And well may they be presumed to know the value of intellectual power. To the merchant, it is, next to probity and virtue, his most essential capital. In the counting-room, its superiority is greatly manifested; and in the intercourse of trader with trader, whether by personal, or through the medium of epistolary communion, its value is beyond all praise. When the duties of the day are thrown aside, it charms the domestic and social circle by its refining influence; but, above all, when the period for retirement from active business pursuits has arrived, it enables the merchant, in his now comparative solitude, to find dear friends in the enlivening companionship of books which he had learned to love in his youth. Without possessing a taste for reading, let no one delude himself with the hope of a happy old age. When the soul looks dimly on the outward world, if no radiant light shine inward, in vain, alas! are wealth and its appliances to produce consolation and contentment. And if our institution serve the double purpose of tending to preserve the young from those pursuits in which honor and happiness are forever wrecked, and of brightening their manhood and old age with intelligence, virtue, and contentment, then does it eminently merit universal favor and protection."

THE UPRIGHT BUSINESS MAN.

An eloquent writer somewhere says:—"There is no being in the world for whom I feel a higher moral respect and admiration, than for the upright man of business. No—not for the philanthropist, the missionary, or the martyr. I feel that I could more easily be a martyr, than a man of that lofty moral uprightness. And let me say, yet more distinctly, that it is not for the generous man I feel that kind of respect. Generosity seems to me a low quality—a mere impulse—compared with the lofty virtue I speak of. It is not for the man who distributes extensive charities—who bestows magnificent donations. That may all be very well. I speak not to disparage it. I wish there were more of it; and yet it may all exist with a want of the true, lofty, unbending uprightness. That is not the man, then, of whom I speak; but it is he who stands, amidst all the exigencies of trade, firm, calm, disinterested, and upright. It is the man who can see another man's distress, as well as his own. It is the man whose mind his own advantage does not blind nor cloud for an instant; who could sit as judge upon a question between himself and his neighbor, just as safely as the purest magistrate upon the bench of justice. Ah! how much richer than ermine—how far nobler than the train of magisterial authority, how more awful than the guarded pomp of majestic truth! Yes, it is the man who is true—true to himself, his neighbor, and his God; true to his right, true to his conscience, and who feels that the slightest suggestion of that conscience is more to him than the chance of acquiring a hundred estates.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TREATY OF WANG-HEYA, BETWEEN CHINA AND THE U. STATES.

The following is the official abstract of the "Treaty of Wang-Heya," between the United States and China. Articles 21st and 25th are given at length.

The preamble sets forth that the United States of America, and the Ta Tsing empire, desiring to establish firm, lasting, and sincere friendship between the two nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear and positive, by means of a treaty, or general convention of peace, amity, and commerce, the rules which shall in future be mutually observed in the intercourse of their respective countries; for which desirable object, the President of the United States has conferred full powers on their Commissioner, Caleb Cushing, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China, and the August Sovereign of the Ta Tsing empire on his Minister and Commissioner Extraordinary, Tsiyeng, of the Imperial House, a Vice-Guardian to the Heir-Apparent, Governor General of the Two Kwangs, and Superintendent General of the Trade and Foreign Intercourse of the Five Ports.

Art. 1. Provides that there shall be a perfect and universal peace, and a sincere and cordial amity, between the United States of America and the Ta Tsing empire.

Art. 2. Provides that citizens of the United States resorting to China for the purposes of commerce, will pay the duties of import and export prescribed in the tariff annexed to the treaty, and no other duties or charges whatever; and that the United States shall participate in any future concession granted to other nations by China.

Art. 3. Provides for the admission of citizens of the United States at the five ports of Kwang-chow, Hiya-men, Fa-chow, Ning-po, and Shang-hai.

Art. 4. Provides for citizens of the United States to import and sell, or buy and export, all manner of merchandise at the five ports.

Art. 6. Limits the tonnage duty on American ships to 5 mace per ton, if over 150 tons registered burden, and 1 mace per ton, if of 150 tons, or less. Also, provides that such vessel, having paid tonnage at one of the five ports, shall not be subject to pay a second tonnage duty at any other of said five ports.

Art. 7. Boats for the conveyance of passengers, &c., exempts, &c., from the payment of tonnage duty.

Art. 8. Provides for authorizing citizens of the United States in China to employ pilots, servants, linguists, laborers, seamen, and packers, for whatever necessary service.

Art. 9. Provides for the employment and duties of custom-house guards for merchant vessels of the United States in China.

Art. 10. Provides that securities of vessels shall deposit their ships' papers with the consul, and make a report, &c., within forty-eight hours after the arrival in port; forbids the discharge of goods without a permit; and authorizes the vessel to discharge the whole or a part only of the cargo, at discretion, or to depart without breaking bulk.

Art. 11. Prescribes the mode of examining goods, in order to the estimation of the duty chargeable thereon.

Art. 12. Provides for regularity and uniformity of weights and measures at the five ports.

Art. 13. Provides for the time and mode of paying duties; tonnage duties being payable on the admittance of the vessel to entry; and

Art. 14. Forbids the transhipment of goods from vessel to vessel in port, without a permit for the same.

Art. 15. Abolishes the hong, and other monopolies and restrictions on trade in China.

Art. 16. Provides for the collection of debts due from Chinese to Americans, or from Americans to Chinese, through the tribunals of the respective countries.

Art. 17. Provides for the residence of citizens of the United States; the construction by them of dwellings, store-houses, churches, cemeteries, and hospitals, and regulates the limits of residence, —— and trade permitted to citizens of the United States at the five ports, and the —— appertaining thereto.

Art. 18. Empowers citizens of the United States freely to employ teachers, and other literary assistants, and to purchase books in China.

Art. 19. Provides for the means of assuring the personal security of citizens of the United States in China.

Art. 20. Provides that citizens of the United States, having paid duties on goods at either of the said ports, may at pleasure export the same to any other of the five ports, without paying duty on the same a second time.

Art. 21. Subjects of China, who may be guilty of any criminal act towards citizens of the United States, shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities according to the laws of China; and citizens of the United States, who may commit any crime in China, shall be subject to be tried and punished only by the consul, or other public functionary of the United States thereto authorized, according to the laws of the United States. And, in order to the prevention of all controversy and disaffection, justice shall be equitably and impartially administered on both sides.

Art. 22. Provides that the merchant vessels may freely carry between the five ports and any country with which China may happen to be at war.

Art. 23. Provides for reports to be made, by consuls of the United States, of the commerce of their country in China.

Art. 24. Provides for the mode in which complaints or petitions may be made by citizens of the United States to the Chinese government, and by subjects of China to the officers of the United States, and controversies between them adjusted.

Art. 25. All questions in regard to the rights, whether of property or persons, arising between citizens of the United States in China, shall be subject to the jurisdiction, and regulated by the authorities of their own government. And all controversies occurring in China, between citizens of the United States and the subjects of any other government, shall be regulated by the treaties existing between the United States and such governments respectively, without interference on the part of China.

Art. 26. Provides for the police and security of merchant vessels of the United States in the waters of China, and the pursuit of and punishment of piracies on the same, by subjects of China.

Art. 27. Provides for the safety and protection of vessels or citizens of the United States wrecked on the coast, or driven by stress of weather, or otherwise, into any of the ports of China.

Art. 28. Provides that citizens of the United States, their vessels and property, shall not be subject to any embargo, detention, or other molestation in China.

Art. 29. Provides for the apprehension in China of mutineers or deserters from the vessels of the United States; the delivering up of Chinese criminals taking refuge in the houses or vessels of the Americans; and the mutual prevention of acts of disorder and violence; and that the merchants, seamen, and other citizens of the United States in China, shall be under the superintendence of the appropriate officers of their own government.

Art. 30. Prescribes the mode and style of correspondence between the officers and private individuals, respectively, of the two nations.

Art. 31. Provides for the transmission of communications from the government of the United States to the imperial court.

Art. 32. Provides that ships of war of the United States, and the officers of the same, shall be hospitably received and entertained at each of the five ports.

Art. 33. Provides that citizens of the United States engaged in contraband trade, or trading clandestinely with such of the ports of China as are not open to foreign commerce, shall not be countenanced or protected by their government.

Art. 34. Provides that the treaty shall be in force for twelve years, or longer, at the option of the two governments; and that the ratifications shall be exchanged within eighteen months from the date of the signatures thereof.

The treaty purports to be signed and sealed by the respective plenipotentiaries at Wang Heya, the 3d of July, 1844, and is signed—

C. Cushing. Tsiyeng, (*in Manchu.*)

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

STEAMBOATS BUILT IN CINCINNATI, IN 1843–44.

The Cincinnati Gazette furnishes a complete list of the steamboats built and fitted out at that port during the year 1844, with a statement of the cost and tonnage of each. The whole number, it will be seen, is 38. The number built in 1843, was 36. In the statement of either year, the boats built at other points within the Cincinnati district, are not included. The lists embrace only those built at Cincinnati.

1844.	Name.	Tonn'ge.	Cost.
January.	Louis Philippe,...	296	$19,000
"	Olive,.....	58	3,000
"	Rodolph,.....	213	15,000
February.	Swiftsure, No. 3,	199	15,000
March.	Maria,.....	692	44,000
"	Irene,.....	76	4,000
"	Lynx,.....	125	10,000
"	Mendota,.....	158	10,000
April.	Laurel,.....	113	6,500
May.	Superb,.....	536	28,000
June.	Daniel Boone,....	170	10,000
"	B. Fr'nklin, No. 7,	239	21,000
July.	Simon Kenton,...	190	12,000
"	Princess,.....	388	30,000
"	Blue Ridge,.....	128	8,000
August.	Mail,.....	211	14,000
"	Paul Pry,.....	136	7,000
Sept'r.	M. B. Hamer,....	198	15,000
"	Carolina,.....	272	18,000
"	Gazelle,.....	82	4,000
"	Lama,.....	79	4,500
Sept'r.	Pearl River,.....	71	3,000
October.	Batesville,.....	178	12,500
"	Enterprise,.....	106	7,500
"	Meteor,.....	165	12,000
"	Albatross,.....	298	22,000
Nov'mb'r.	Pike, No. 7,.....	481	30,000
"	Arkansas, No. 4,.	281	22,500
"	Warrior,..	224	15,000
"	Isaac Shelby,....	159	11,000
"	Fort Wayne,.....	244	20,000
"	Lady Madison,...	148	11,500
"	Luda,.....	286	29,000
"	Panola,.....	120	10,000
Dec'mb'r.	Corinne,.....	183	13,000
"	Yorktown,.....	237	30,000
"	St. Mary,.....	183	13,000
"	Levant,.....	225	15,000
Aggregate tonnage,.....		8,248	
Whole cost,.....			$568,000
Total number of boats,.....			38

The aggregate tonnage of these thirty-eight boats, (custom-house measurement,) is 8,248 tons, and the aggregate cost $568,000. Of the thirty-six boats built in 1843, the aggregate custom-house measurement was 8,415 tons, and the aggregate cost $605,250. Of the boats built in Cincinnati in 1844, the average size is 219 tons, and the average cost $14,947. Of those built there in 1843, the average size was 236 tons, and the average cost $16,812. The cost per ton of the boats built in Cincinnati in 1844, was $68 87½; the cost per ton of those built there in 1843, was $71 94. These are interesting facts; and, for the purpose of presenting them more directly to the eye at a glance, we construct the following table:—

Years.	Tonnage.	Cost.	Av. size.	Av. cost.	Cost per ton.
843,.....	8,415	$605,250	236 tons.	$16,812	$71 94
844,.....	8,248	568,000	217 "	14,947	68 87½

Although, as this table shows, the average size of the steamboats built in Cincinnati the last year was smaller than that of those built there in 1843, yet several of those built in 1844 were considerably larger than any built the previous year. The five largest built in each of the two years, were as follows:—

1843.		1844.	
Harry of the West,.....tons	490	Maria,.....tons	692
Concordia,.....	470	Superb,.....	536
Congress,.....	334	Pike, No. 7,.....	481
Queen of the West,.....	328	Princess,.....	388
Champion,.....	321	Yorktown,.....	337
Total,.....	1,943	Total,.....	2,434

The boats generally built in Cincinnati the past year, have been remarkable for their strength, their exterior beauty, and the taste and comfort of their interior finish and fitting up.

BOSTON AND LOWELL RAILROAD.

The directors of the Boston and Lowell railroad have made the fourteenth annual report of their receipts, expenditures, &c., under their act of incorporation. The distance from Boston to Lowell, by this road, is 26 miles. The total amount of capital paid in, is $1,800,000. The amount of profits divided during the year 1844, was $144,000, in two dividends, of 4 per cent each, on a capital of $1,800,000. The amount of freight during the year has been much greater than in any preceding period, amounting to 151,731 tons. The freight and passenger tariff has been reduced since the last annual report. It was formerly $1 for passengers, in first-class cars; it is now, in first-class cars, for passengers, from Boston to Lowell, 75 cents; and 50 cents in second-class cars. Merchandise, generally, at $1 50 per ton—if in cargoes, landed on the railroad wharves at $1 25 per ton, without any charge for wharfage. 45,420 tons were carried over this road for the factories, during the past year; and the company have a special bargain with the Lowell factories. They are charged $1 25 for all cotton, wool, and goods made of those articles, and $1 per ton for all other articles. The stockholders of the Western Branch railroad, incorporated in 1843, have transferred their rights and privileges to the Boston and Lowell company. This road begins 7 miles from the depot of the Lowell and Boston, out of the latter city. The road has a single track, with a heavy T rail, of 56 pounds to the yard, upon chesnut sleepers, 7 feet long, and 6 inches in depth, 2 feet 7 inches apart, resting upon a bed of clear gravel, 2 feet deep. The rails are in lengths of 18 feet, and the joints are secured by a clasp chain of 20 pounds weight.

The whole cost of the Boston and Lowell railroad, with its depots, cars, engines, and appurtenances, and about 58 miles of single track, amounts to $1,902,555 67; of which—

Land for tracks and land damages,.....	$73,909 48
Depot lands and buildings,.....	276,079 48
Engines and cars,.....	127,238 43
Iron rails, bolts and chairs,.....	282,833 95
Bridges (66 in number) and culverts,.....	196,831 58
Road, excavation and embankment, trench walls, stone blocks and sleepers, laying rails, branch tracks at Lowell, superintendence, engineering, &c.,.....	910,222 06
Woburn branch railroad,.....	35,440 68
Total,.....	$1,902,555 67

We give below, from the directors' report, a tabular statement, showing the capital, income, and expenses of the road, from its opening, on the 24th of June, 1835, to November 30th, 1844; by which it appears that the surplus on hand on the 30th of November,

1844, after paying the dividends of that year, amounts to $18,433 36, which is the whole surplus remaining undivided, after nine or ten years operations. The amount on hand in the year 1841, when it was largest, more than half of which was derived from withholding the winter dividend of 1836, (in which year only 2 per cent was divided,) has been absorbed by the necessary expense of taking up and relaying the first track, on which too light a rail had originally been laid, as has been more fully stated in former reports. The cost of this work was $121,558 84, and is spread over the three years 1841–42–43.

CAPITAL ACCOUNT, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

Statement of capital paid in at date, charged and credited to construction, and whole cost of construction at the end of each year, from 1835 *to* 1844, *inclusive.*

Nov. 30, of the years	Cap. paid in at that date.	Charged to construction in that year.	Credited to construction in that year.	Whole cost of construc. at the end of the year.
1835,.....	$1,200,000	.....	.....	$1,312,239 54
1836,.....	1,440,000	$193,405 69	.....	1,505,645 33
1837,.....	1,500,000	2,749 52	.....	1,508,394 75
1838,.....	1,500,000	67,268 75	.....	1,575,663 50
1839,.....	1,650,000	32,812 71	.....	1,698,476 21
1840,.....	1,800,000	120,796 38	.....	1,729,242 59
1841,.....	1,800,000	105,650 48	.....	1,834,893 07
1842,.....	1,800,000	143,393 02	.....	1,978,286 09
1843,.....	1,800,000	10,743 10	$31,638 24* 20,886 07† 72,758 72‡	1,863,746 16
1844,.....	1,800,000	68,809 51	30,000 00‖	1,902,555 67

INCOME AND EXPENSE ACCOUNT, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

Statement of the Receipts, Expenses, Dividends, Profits, Surplus, &c., in each year, from 1835 *to* 1844.

Years.	Gross rec. fm. all sources. *Dollars.*	Expenses. *Dollars.*	Nett profits. *Dollars.*	Div. of that yr. *Dollars.*	Rate pr. ct.	Surplus of the yr. *Dollars.*	Defic. of the year. *Dollars.*
1835,	64,654 39	19,125 36	45,529 03	45,000	3¼	529 03	.....
1836,	165,124 30	75,326 11	87,798 19	30,000	2	59,798 19	.....
1837,	180,770 04	78,508 17	102,261 87	105,000	7	.....	2,738 13
1838,	191,778 57 241,219 94	75,597 94	116,180 63	105,000	7	11,180 63	.....
1839,	§9,160 63 231,575 27	92,151 44	158,229 13	132,000	8	26,229 13	.....
1840,	§14,132 51	91,400 17	154,307 61	138,000	8	16,307 61	.....
1841,	267,541 34	119,469 32	148,072 02	144,000	8	4,072 02	.....
1842,	278,310 68	165,174 79 †20,886 07	113,135 89	144,000	8	....	30,864 11
1843,	277,315 06	109,366 88 †72,758 72	74,303 29	144,000	8	.....	69,696 71
1844,	316,909 58	139,293 88	147,615 70	144,000	8	3,615 70	.....
	2,238,492 31	1,059,058 95	1,149,433 36	1,131,000	.	.....	.....

The cost of a share on the 30th November, 1835, when the first annual settlement of accounts was made, after the opening of the road, including interest, at 6 per cent on the assessments from the time when they were laid, and deducting the dividend paid for the fraction of that year, amounted to $540 75, or almost exactly 8 per cent on the par value. Since then, in the nine years which have followed, the dividends have averaged 7 1-9 per cent on the par value of the shares.

* Cash received for old rail iron sold.

† Balance of interest account charged to expenses.

‡ Cost of rail iron for repairs, originally charged with rail iron for construction, and now transferred to its proper head.

‖ Depreciation in value of engines and cars.

§ Advance on 600 shares new stock sold at auction, for account of the corporation.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN RAILWAYS.

The American Railroad Journal is now issued weekly, by D. K. Minor, in an improved form. This work has been published since 1831. It was then, and continues to be, the only Railroad Journal in this country, and was in advance of any in Europe. Now, there are four Journals published in London, alone, dedicated entirely to the railway and mining interests, with ample support. The two principal, Herapath and the Railway Times, have a large circulation. In this country, we have already upwards of $125,000,000 invested in railways, that yield a very inadequate support to one, although containing much valuable information. We avail ourselves of the published tables of 84 American, and 43 English railways, to present the following interesting summary, in part prepared to our hands.

Five of the principal railways in England, extending over 563 miles, cost 20,456,302*l.* sterling, equal to $102,281,510. These roads, compared with eight of our principal and most profitable works, in length 540 miles, it would appear, have cost $15,353,220, and produce the following results:—

ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

Name.	Miles.	Cost.	Share.	Val.
Grand Junction,.....	104	£2,453,169	100	210
Great Western, and branches,.....	222	7,272,539	75	128
Liverpool and Manchester,.....	32	1,739,835	100	203
London and Birmingham,.....	112	6,393,468	100	218
London and Southwestern,.....	93	2,596,291	41	73
Total,.....	563	£20,455,302	.....	.....

The annual dividends of these roads, for a number of years, varies from 7 to 10 per cent, principally the latter rate. This is about 2 per cent greater than the average of the following American railways, arising from the dense population of England, and the fact that the stockholders in the above-named roads have been enabled to borrow from one-third to one-fourth the cost of their roads, at from 3½ to 4½ per cent; these investments being now considered among the best in the country.

AMERICAN RAILWAYS.

Name.	Miles.	Cost.	Share.	Val.
Boston and Worcester,.....	48	$2,885,200	100	119
Boston and Lowell,.....	28	1,863,746	100	117
Boston and Providence,.....	41	1,900,000	100	109
Boston and Maine,.....	109	1,384,050	100	110
Eastern,.....	105	2,388,631	100	108
Utica and Schenectady,.....	78	2,124,013	100	131
Syracuse and Utica,.....	53	1,080,219	100	119
Auburn and Rochester,.....	78	1,727,361	100	110
Total,.....	540	$15,353,220	.....	.....

The average cost, per mile, of these eight roads, is..... $28,000
" " " the five English railways, is..... 181,670

We find in the list two railways—the London and Blackwall, and the London and Greenwich, each 3¼ miles in length, which have cost £2,356,570, equal to $11,782,850, or $1,533,270 per mile.

The cost of 1,784 miles of railways in Great Britain, has been..... £62,287,900
There are 2,000 miles projected, and in the course of construction, estimated to cost..... 50,000,000

Total,..... $561,439,500 = £112,287,900

The tables show that, taking 1,774 miles in New England, New York, New Jersey; the Philadelphia and Baltimore, the Baltimore and Washington, and the Georgia Central railways, the aggregate cost is $54,416,335, or about $30,500 per mile; being one-third

less in this country than in England. This arises principally from land damages, the extravagant parliamentary expenses to obtain charters, &c., &c. These, on the Great Western railroad, were—$8,500 per mile, for procuring charter; engineering, $6,500 per mile; land drainage, $35,500 per mile; grading, $159,600; superstructure, $47,500; motive power, $25,500; incidental, $3,300. Total, $284,000 per mile. The table of American railways is still incomplete, there being several blanks to fill up. The table already exceeds 4,200 miles, and the cost above $110,000,000. The aggregate number of miles of railways in use in this country is 5,000, and the cost $125,000,000, or $25,000 per mile. In proportion to territory, these American roads do not equal the English, although we greatly exceed them in proportion to population. The great facilities presented by the English web of railways to the government, is the true secret of R. Hill's success in introducing his "penny system," and at a rate per mile, per annum, at an average of three times the prices paid by our government; who, with others, are loud in their denunciation of these "monopolies" as "extortionate," &c., &c. They do not take into consideration that the average actual cost of running a train in this country, with one locomotive, and two or three cars, is full 75 cents per train per mile. This would give, for 365 days, $273 75 per mile, per annum; a rate about double the average allowed by the postmaster-general—to wit: $143. On the principal railways in Great Britain, the government allows from $400 to $800 per mile per annum, to carry her mails.

Unless railways are fairly tested, and patronized by the government at rates that will aid them to pay off the debt with which they are generally encumbered, their necessities, and the necessties of some of the states in which they are located, may induce them to farm out the cars to private enterprise. Already the governor of New Jersey boasts that "the railway pays $60,000 per annum into the state treasury, a sum equal to the expenses of the state," for the privilege of passing through New Jersey. Pennsylvania, with her $40,000,000 of debt, *may* tax the government for the transit of the mails east and west, over her Columbia and Portage railways; while Maryland may also find it convenient to follow the example of New Jersey, and collect a bonus for the use of her railways, by an indirect tax, and thus induce her state incorporations to exact extravagant terms of the United States government. Cheap postage, the people will and *must have*. It can only be accomplished by railways, liberally aided by the general government, to complete the *main seaboard line*, with the several *cross* or branch railways, over the Alleghany ridge, to the valley of the Ohio, that are now languishing in the states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, although so important to the post-office department, and for general defence.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF HAVANA, FOR THE LAST TWELVE YEARS.

Comparative Statement of the Exports of Sugar, Coffee, Tobacco, Honey, Beeswax, and Spirits, from Havana, in each year, from 1833 *to* 1844, *a period of twelve years.*

	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Sugar,.....boxes	269,277	292,207	300,218	313,978	321,657	344,493
Coffee,.....arrobas	1,857,125	915,601	793,302	839,956	1,409,789	864,490
Tobacco, man.,....millares	117,450	116,442	64,733	94,564	143,705	171,413
" raw,.....lbs.	401,376	540,357	660,915	1,293,803	1,119,185	1,528,125
Honey, Purga,.....jars	39,696	39,283	42,355	44,778	43,278	56,451
" .....tcs.	984	1,444	1,403	1,340	1,399	1,173
Beeswax,.....arrobas	24,516	22,271	23,303	20,489	35,414	20,251
Spirits,.....pipes	2,073	2,479	3,583	3,009	2,497	3,976

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Sugar,.....boxes	330,624	447,578	346,890	427,947	461,307½	534,582½
Coffee,.....arrobas	1,174,996	1,272,822	742,570	1,081,468½	773,043	579,248
Tobacco, man.,....mill.	153,370	137,067	159,450	130,727	152,009½	149,583½
" raw,.....lbs.	359,029	1,025,262	1,452,989	1,018,990½	2,138,802½	1,286,242½
Honey, Purga,.....jars	51,902	47,006	42,909	37,459½	35,711	33,812½
" .....tes.	1,526	2,113	1,974	2,643	2,198	1,963½
Beeswax,.....arrobas	29,535	24,447	28,315	29,351	37,048½	31,759½
Spirits,.....pipes	6,670	8,472	8,753	6,785	6,223	4,066

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

Statement of the number of vessels entered into and sailed from the Port of Havana, during the years 1843 *and* 1844.

	1843.			1844.	
Months.	Entered.	S'led.	Months.	Entered.	Sl'd.
January,.....	135	116	January,.....	138	120
February,.....	120	116	February,.....	177	120
March,.....	165	160	March,.....	188	181
April,.....	172	184	April,.....	183	217
May,.....	165	200	May,.....	188	196
June,.....	137	11	June,.....	120	153
July,.....	82	140	July,.....	87	124
August,.....	95	79	August,.....	93	96
September,.....	71	70	September,.....	72	71
October,.....	92	97	October,.....	122	68
November,.....	108	100	November,.....	141	144
December,.....	113	87	December,.....	169	148
Total,.....	1,455	1,459	Total,.....	1,678	1,638

IMPORTS OF NEW YORK, IN 1844.

The following is a quarterly statement of the imports and duties received at the port of New York, from January 1st to December 31st, 1844, distinguishing merchandise dutiable, free of duty, and specie and bullion:—

	Dutiable Mdze.	Free Merchandise.	Specie and bullion.	Total.	Duties.
January,.....	$6,194,657	$415,993	$73,204	$6,683,354	$1,852,577 19
February,.....	6,023,763	548,326	55,417	6,627,511	2,131,926 99
March,.....	4,641,334	537,883	58,008	5,237,225	1,641,140 24
1st qr., 1844,.	$16,859,754	$1,502,202	$186,629	$18,548,090	$5,625,644 42
April,.....	$5,638,873	$1,754,237	$70,573	$7,463,683	$1,805,706 06
May,.....	4,667,950	1,913,774	243,424	6,825,148	1,793,824 77
June,.....	5,229,941	529,042	64,297	5,823,280	1,882,984 24
2d qr., 1844,..	$15,536,764	$4,197,053	$378,294	$20,112,111	$5,482,515 07
July,.....	$7,182,196	$666,595	$157,121	$8,005,912	$2,189,428 77
August,.....	9,970,572	1,187,836	100,388	11,258,796	3,085,352 27
September,....	7,227,664	817,106	62,945	8,107,715	2,422,751 06
3d qr., 1844,..	$24,380,432	$2,671,537	$320,454	$27,372,423	$7,697,532 10
October,.....	$3,846,889	$711,240	$55,079	$4,613,208	$1,260,203 01
November,....	1,640,150	345,827	40,300	2,026,277	557,490 30
December,....	2,657,274	288,729	130,608	3,076,611	834,445 84
4th qr., 1844,.	$8,144,313	$1,345,796	$225,987	$9,716,096	$2,652,139 15
Total,...	$64,921,263	$9,716,588	$1,111,364	$75,748,720	$21,457,830 74

COMMERCE, DEBT, AND RESOURCES OF TEXAS.

We are indebted partly to T. P. KETTELL, Esq., the able commercial and financial editor of the "Morning News," for the following statement of the commerce, debt, and resources of Texas. Everything relating to the Texian Republic is, at the present time, a matter of great interest. The following is an official table, made public in 1841, of the amount of the original debt then in existence; since which time, no new stock has been issued—the credit of the country having been, fortunately, too dilapidated to admit of loans:—

PUBLIC DEBT OF TEXAS.

Funded act of 1837,.....	1841	$750,000	$335,000	$1,085,000
" 1840,.....	5 ys.	800,000	240,000	1,040,000
Bonds pledged,.....	20 ys.	500,000	170,000	670,000
Issued for navy,.....	1842	690,000	302,000	992,000
Bonds at 8 per cent,.....	5 ys.	100,000	32,000	132,000
Treasury notes,.....	.....	2,250,000	.....	2,250,000
Land receipts,.....	.....	1,500,000	.....	1,500,000
Floating debt,.....	.....	500,000	.....	500,000
Total debt,.....		$7,090,000	$1,079,000	$8,169,000

This is, no doubt, very near the actual amount of the liabilities of Texas. General Hamilton, a few years since, visited Europe, for the purpose of obtaining a loan on pledge of Texas land, but was unsuccessful. According to a congressional report of 1839, the quantity of government land was as follows:—

		Acres.
Extent of the Texian Republic,.....		203,420,000
Granted by Mexico, and confirmed by Texas,.....	53,311,267	
Texas grants, since her independence,.....	5,597,356	
Military bounty lands,.....	4,393,074	
Land scrip issues,.....	1,500,000	
		64,801,797
Unappropriated balance, acres,.....		138,618,203

The imports and exports of the U. States, to and from Texas, have been as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS TO AND FROM TEXAS.

	Exports to Texas.			Imports.
Years.	*Dom. Goods.*	*For. Goods.*	*Total.*	
1837,.....	$797,312	$210,616	$1,007,928	$163,384
1838,.....	1,028,818	219,062	1,247,880	165,718
1839,.....	1,379,016	308,017	1,687,082	318,116
1840,.....	937,073	281,199	1,218,271	303,847
1841,.....	516,255	292,041	808,296	395,026
1842,.....	278,978	127,951	406,929	480,892
1843,.....	705,240	37,713	142,753	445,399

The largest exports to Texas were in 1839, and consisted mostly of clothing, furniture, lumber, and dry-goods, of which over $250,000 was domestic cottons. A large portion of their exports consisted, undoubtedly, of the property of emigrants; but they seem now to supply themselves from other quarters, the United States having lost the trade. In the meantime, the exports of Texas, consisting of cotton almost altogether, have rapidly increased. The quantity and value brought into the United States, in each year, has been as follows:—

IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM TEXAS.

Years.	Pounds.	Value.	Years.	Pounds.	Value.
1836,.....	1,473,133	$232,336	1840,.....	2,669,655	$223,182
1837,.....	1,082,466	144,587	1841,.....	3,128,776	276,315
1838,.....	1,491,293	156,242	1842,.....	5,255,142	406,943
1839,.....	1,890,052	240,130	1843,.....	7,593,107	379,750

This evinces a regular and steady increase of business, apparently largely in favor of Texas. The imports and duties of the port of Galveston, for the year ending November 1, are as follows:—

	1842.	1844.	
Imports,.....	$368,532	$510,399	$161,867
Duties,.....	89,042	158,815	69,773

This increasing trade, and the economical manner in which the government has been administered, is evinced in the late message of President Houston, who states that, during the three years he has been in office, the revenue and expenditure have been as follows:—

Revenue,.....	$466,158
Expensee,.....	460,209
Excess revenue,.....	$5,949

The country is now rapidly filling with emigrants, who arrive from Europe, direct, in large numbers, and immediately occupy the prolific soil.

Since the above was prepared, we have received an abstract of the "Annual Report of the Treasury Department, to the ninth Congress of the Republic of Texas," dated "Washington, December 1st, 1844," and signed "J. B. Miller, Secretary of the Treasury;" which enables us to give a summary account of the commerce of Texas, for the year ending on the 31st July, 1844, as follows:—

130 vessels were entered from foreign ports, or with cargoes subject to duty.

Amount of merchandise imported,.....		$686,503 03
Total gross amounts of revenue,.....	$201,413 30	
Expenses of collection,.....	23,551 45	
Nett amount of revenue,.....	$177,861 85	

The sum of the merchandise imported was introduced in the amounts below, from the following countries:—From the United States of America, $593,525 14; Great Britain and Ireland, $51,059 89; British West Indies, $3,624 10; Spanish West Indies, $148 87; France, $5,584 58; Hanse Towns, $27,494 54; the Austrian Adriatic dominions, $1,185 86; Yucatan, $663 57. Total, $686,503 03.

The rate of per centage which the gross amount of impost duties bears to the total amount of merchandise imported, is a minute fraction over 26 9-16 per cent. As, however, nearly six-sevenths of the merchandise was imported in foreign vessels, of the class whose cargoes are subject to the 5 per cent augmentation, 5 per cent on six-sevenths of the merchandise may be deducted from the total of duties, to show what the average impost rate would have been, had all the effects been imported in Texian, British, French, Dutch, or American vessels.

COMMERCE OF GALVESTON.

We also annex an official statement of revenue collected at the custom-house, port of Galveston, for the year commencing Nov. 1, 1843, and ending Oct. 31, 1844:—

Imports.

Total amount subject to specific duty,.....	$130,847 88
" " ad valorem duty,.....	378,225 95
Free duties,.....	1,325 54
Total imports,.....	$510,399 37
Total amount of duties on the above,.....	$142,672 98
Tonnage,.....	13,399 99
Permits, blank and vessel fees,.....	1,793 63
Storage on goods,.....	452 63
Fines and forfeitures,.....	296 24
Total revenues,.....	$158,615 47

The above amount paid thus:—

$83,345 36 exchequer bills, at different rates,.....	$74,027 89
Amount paid in par funds,.....	84,587 58
Total,.....	$158,615 47

The following are the expenses at the custom-house, Galveston, from 31st October, 1843, to 31st October, 1844, inclusive:—

	Salaries of officers.	Contingt expenses.
Quarter ending 31st January, 1844,	$3,301 75	$934 57
" 30th April, 1844,	2,252 16	486 32
" 31st July, 1844,	2,250 50	542 28
" 31st October, 1844,	2,256 00	224 88
	$9,060 41	$2,188 05
Add salaries of officers,		9,060 41
		$11,248 46
From which deduct amount charged for services of officers disconnected with their respective offices, to wit:—For permits,	$469 60	
For blanks,	798 83	
For vessel's fees,	524 70	
		1,793 13
Total expenses,		$9,455 33

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF MOBILE, IN 1844.

The Mobile Register has made the following abstract from the returns of the custom-house at Mobile, for the respective quarters of the year 1844:—

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE FROM FOREIGN PORTS, INTO THE PORT OF MOBILE.

1st quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,	$84,075 00	
By American "	60,277 00=	$144,352 00
2d quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,	2,524 00	
By American "	27,107 00=	29,631 00
3d quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,	39 00	
By American "	8,329 00=	8,368 00
4th quarter, 1844—By Foreign vessels,	13,448 00	
By American "	46,544 00=	59,992 00
Value of imports paying duty,		$242,343 00
" free of duty,		156,938 00
Total foreign imports for 1844,		$399,281 00
Amount of merchandise paying specific duties,		$173,060 00
" " " ad valorem duties,		69,283 00
" " free of duty,		156,938 00
Total,		$399,281 00

AMOUNT OF DUTIES RECEIVED IN 1844.

1st quarter—By Foreign vessels,	$36,622 42	
By American "	24,314 94=	$60,937 36
2d quarter—By Foreign vessels,	1,743 04	
By American "	11,681 27=	13,424 41
3d quarter—By Foreign vessels,	8 05	
By American "	2,630 28=	2,638 33
4th quarter—By Foreign vessels,	6,374 26	
By American "	17,081 17=	23,455 43
Total amount of duties for 1844,		$100,455 53
Amount of specific duties,		$81,894 43
" ad valorem duties,		18,561 10
Total,		$100,455 52

EXPORT OF TEA FROM CHINA TO GREAT BRITAIN,

BETWEEN 1ST JULY, 1843, AND 30TH JUNE, 1844, IN 96 SHIPS.

The Friend of China, and Hong-Kong Gazette, furnishes us with the following tabular statement of the exports of every description of tea, in each month, from July 1, 1843, to June 30, 1844, in 96 ships:—

Date.	Bohea.	Congou.	Caper.	Souchong and Campoi.	Blk. lf. Pekoe and H. Muey.	Flow'ry Pekoe.	Orange Pekoe.
July,.....	.....	1,409,868	1,610	44,402	.....	34,100	42,550
August,....	.....	367,106	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,018
Sept'r,.....	.....	755,020	.....	6,200	.....	.....	.....
October,...	.....	3,935,545	18,387	94,929	5,079	182,291	118,189
Nov'r, ...	.....	5,968,774	29,531	260,253	64,112	80,499	275,841
Dec'r,.....	.....	4,725,895	80,842	172,224	20,082	41,188	232,849
January,...	.....	5,234,968	46,311	124,311	64,985	17,686	84,552
February,..	.....	4,155,958	127,900	299,252	38,762	19,145	232,244
March,....	9,540	3,207,845	104,667	114,294	3,866	23,599	36,884
April,.....	1,653	2,929,938	19,074	164,235	9,749	40,586	5,693
May,.....	.....	4,059,905	62,715	334,308	67,192	14,252	9,500
June,.....	.....	1,565,996	7,028	8,195	.....	.....	57,750
Total,...	11,193	38,316,818	498,065	1,562,603	273,827	453,277	1,104,070

EXPORTS OF TEA—Continued.

Date.	Sorts.	Black.	Hyson.	Y. Hyson.	H. Skin.
July,.....	.....	1,532,530	39,555	222,655	12,336
August,.....	.....	375,124	.....	.....	6,115
September,.....	.....	761,220	.....	.....	.....
October,.....	453	4,354,873	50,951	236,296	20,232
November,.....	5,195	6,684,135	29,793	307,771	.....
December,.....	.....	5,273,080	45,882	151,483	16,582
January,.....	8,208	5,581,021	107,408	70,039	96,948
February,.....	2,216	4,875,477	392,790	176,764	102,823
March,.....	21,783	3,522,478	208,974	155,741	199,147
April,.....	4,208	3,115,136	346,754	51,551	51,145
May,.....	13,565	4,561,438	26,252	33,220	23,537
June,.....	1,100	1,640,069	19,442	23,734	31,520
Total,.....	56,728	42,276,581	1,267,807	1,429,254	560,385

EXPORTS OF TEA—Continued.

Date.	Twankay.	Imperial.	Gunpowder.	Green.	Total.
July,.....	410,430	41,365	61,884	788,225	2,320,755
August,.....	.....	.....	.....	6,115	381,239
September,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	761,220
October,.....	294,745	48,764	106,121	757,109	5,111,982
November,.....	113,748	19,097	62,436	532,845	7,216,980
December,.....	134,823	63,227	141,407	553,404	5,826,484
January,.....	280,042	109,554	275,171	939,162	6,520,183
February,.....	1,064,887	170,677	298,634	2,206,575	7,082,002
March, ...	521,480	45,209	93,690	1,224,241	4,746,719
April,.....	470,273	23,012	95,905	1,038,640	4,153,770
May,.....	340,631	37,314	96,501	557,455	5,118,898
June,.....	391,323	34,318	63,138	563,481	2,203,544
Total,.....	4,022,382	592,537	1,294,887	9,167,252	51,443,833

MANUFACTURING DIVIDENDS IN NEW ENGLAND.

The following table, interesting to all purchasers and dealers in stocks on both sides of the Atlantic, is from Willis & Company's Bank Note List for October, 1844. We are indebted to the treasurers of the respective corporations, who politely gave us every information required, for the accuracy of the following table, which first appeared

in the Boston Morning Post of October last, it is believed. [The table, notwithstanding, has, through more exact inquiry, been rectified in several particulars since its original appearance.]

		1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	Total.
Lowell Corporations.	Merrimack,.....	11	9	12	8	16	20	76
	Hamilton,.....	†	5	8	8	6	7	26
	Appleton,.....	5	5	6	0	6	6	28
	Lowell,.....	5*a*	0	11	4*c*	.	7	27
	Suffolk,.....	11	8	11	3	6	16	55
	Middlesex,*b*.....	...	.	10	9	4*d*	10	33
	Tremont, ...	11	7	8	2	6	16	50
	Lawrence,.....	10	3	7	2	7	15	44
	Boot,.....	11	4	11	3	5	11	45
	Massachusetts,...	...	.	‡	3	4	14	21
Other Co.'s in Mass., N. H., Me.	Cabot,.....	6	3	9	5	11	10	44
	Chickop,.....	9	.	3	.	...	3	15
	Dwight,*e*.....	.	.	.	3	11	8	22
	Perkins,.....	5	5	6	.	9	10	35
	Thornd.,.....	.	.	11	3	5	14	33
	Palmer,.....	20	8	10	6	9	16	69
	Otis,.....	...	.	...	.	10	10	20
	Amoak.,.....	9	.	6	4	7	9	35
	York,.....	16	12	9	7	6	17 10	77
	Nashua,.....	10	0	8	3	6	8	35
	Total,.....	139	69	146	65	159	237	...

MACKEREL FISHERY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

We give, below, the annual return of the number of barrels of mackerel inspected in Massachusetts, from January 1st, 1844, to December 31st, 1844; including barrels, halves, quarters, and eighths of barrels. Annexed, will be found the total number of barrels inspected in each year, from 1831 to 1843, which shows the falling off in this branch of commercial industry.

INSPECTION OF 1844.

Towns.	Bbls. No. 1.	Bbls. No. 2.	Bbls. No. 3.
Yarmouth,.....	832⅜	545	1,333
Wellfleet,.....	2,458½	3,088⅛	4,223
Truro,.....	1,707½	904½	2,042
Scituate,.....	140⅛	228⅛	283
Rockport,.....	831½	491¼	599½
Provincetown,.....	1,077⅜	955½	1,841
Newburyport,.....	2,842½	1,329¼	2,837
Hingham,.....	2,629¼	1,798	4,943½
Gloucester,.....	6,675½	4,727⅛	6,053½
Dennis,.....	816⅜	889⅜	1,804½
Chatham,.....	138	109	151½
Cohasset, ...	1,775⅜	1,817½	4,266
Beverly,.....	2	12	7
Barnstable,.....	657½	531¼	1,090
Boston,.....	2,564¼	1,858⅛	3,032¼
English, re-inspected,	4,678	2,857⅜	574
Total,.....	29,828¼	22,142¾	35,081½

The quantity inspected in Massachusetts for thirteen years, was as follows:—

Years.	Barrels.
1843,.....	64,451
1842,.....	75,543
1841,.....	55,537
1840,.....	50,992
1839,.....	73,018
1838,.....	108,538
1837,.....	138,157
1836,.....	176,931
1835,.....	194,454
1834,.....	252,884
1833,.....	212,946
1832,.....	212,452
1831,.....	383,559

† Dividend in new shares. ‡ Not in full operation.

a Further dividend in new shares.

b Not in operation as a distinct corporation till 1841.

c The cotton-mill stopped from July, 1842, to July, 1843.

d Extra dividend of 25 per cent of accumulated profits on manufacturing, sales of land, and rents to increase the capital from $600,000 to $750,000.

e Not in operation till 1842.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Correspondence of Mr. Ralph Izard, of South Carolina, from* 1774 *to* 1804. *With a short Memoir.* Vol. 1. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

The correspondence in the present volume embraces a period of four years—1774–77—an eventful and an important epoch in the history of this country. From the brief memoir, introductory to the correspondence, prepared by the compiler, Ann Izard Deas, a daughter of Mr. Izard, we learn that his ancestors were English—came to America in the reign of Queen Anne, and settled in South Carolina. He was educated in England, but returned to America, and passed the winters in Carolina, and the summers in New York. He was married in 1767; and a few years after, (1771,) went to England, and settled in London. His high and independent spirit was evinced, as appears from the memoir and correspondence, long before the revolutionary war took place; as it seems, while in England, he declined the honor of being presented at Court, as it would have been necessary for him to bow the knee, which he said he never would do to mortal man. Several important trusts were reposed in him by the colonial government; and, after the establishment of Congress, he represented South Carolina in the Senate of the United States. The work is mainly valuable as a contribution to the revolutionary history of the country, and discovers facts and circumstances which will, no doubt, surprise many.

2.—*Flowers for Children.* By L. Maria Child, author of "The Mother's Book," "New York Letters," etc. Vol. 2. For Children six years old.

3.—*Kate and Lizzie; or, Six Months Out of School.* By Anne W. Abbott, author of "Willie Rogers," etc.

4.—*The Robins; or, Domestic Life among the Birds. With Anecdotes of other Animals.* By Mrs. Trimmer.

5.—*Turns of Fortune, and other Tales.* By Mrs. S. C. Hall. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

These four volumes form part of a series, for young people of all ages, by some of the most popular writers for children, uniformly bound, now in course of publication by Francis & Co., names familiar to all readers of juvenile literature. They are little books; but will, we predict, fill a large place in the reading of that large portion of the community whom we call children; some of whom may be pretty old, if we can judge from the pleasure we ourselves have taken in looking over these volumes. Their authors are well known; and that alone has found, or will find for them, a reception in most families. They deserve it of all families. Besides, we think them deserving of a great deal more attention than many more pretending volumes. They are written with larger sympathies, a great deal more spirit, freshness, and talent. We are sick of the solemn trash with which our press continually teems, under the general class of popular and practical books—full of feeble common-place and solemn dullness—bringing down the most important subjects into shallow compends, which give only the most superficial knowledge—serving as a substitute for all thinking on the part of readers, and ministering none of that quickening impulse and culture to the fancy, the imagination, and the heart, without which, mere knowledge in the head, even if thorough, is sapless and lifeless; but, being shallow, is full of cold-hearted, self-complacent conceit.

6.—*Whimsicalities; a Periodical Gathering.* By Thomas Hood, author of the "Comic Annual," "Whims and Oddities," etc. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

A collection of the humorous papers that were published, from time to time, in the London Magazine; which, although mainly designed to amuse, or excite the humor of the cranium, are not devoid of the *morale*. Those who have read and admired (and who has not?) Hood's "Song of the Shirt," and other articles of like tendency, from the same pen, will, we are sure, avail themselves of these inklings of harmless, if not beneficent recreation.

7.—*Cobb's New North American Reader; or, Fifth Reading Book.* By LYMAN COBB, A. M. New York: Caleb Bartlett.

This reading book, in some respects, at least, it seems to us, is superior to any other book of reading lessons for the highest classes in schools, that has fallen under our observation. The selections are chiefly from approved American writers; whereas the book which, we are told, is most generally used in the schools of our country, does not contain a single piece or paragraph from the pen of an American citizen. This is a manifest mistake, which Mr. Cobb has sought, in the present compilation, to remedy. Certainly, as he truly remarks in the preface, pride for the literary reputation of our country, if not patriotism and good policy, should dictate the propriety of giving in our school books specimens of our own literature. We have civil and political institutions of our own; and how can they be sustained unless the children and youth of our country are early made to understand them? In the course of an introductory chapter, the author gives a series of just rules and observations on the principles of good reading; and at the head of each reading lesson is a series of definitions, in which every *new word* in the reading lesson is *spelled, pronounced, accented, and defined;* and the *part of speech* noted. As he proceeds, new words are presented, such as he has not seen before; and his progress through the book is a series of triumphs over difficulties for which he is duly prepared. We might refer to various other improvements, but enough has been said to call the attention of parents and teachers to the work; which has, within a few days, been adopted, together with Mr. Cobb's whole series of school books, by the Board of Control of the Public Schools in Philadelphia.

8.—*The Sacred Flora; or, Flowers from the Grave of a Child.* By HENRY BACON. Boston: A. Tompkins.

9.—*Hours of Communion.* By EDWIN H. CHAPIN. Boston: A. Tompkins.

Two pretty miniature volumes, the productions of congenial minds and kindred spirits. The author of the first, says, that he selected the name of "Sacred Flora," because the sentiments which he wished to express, springing as they did around the grave of a precious child, seemed to him well symbolized by such memorial flowers as those to which allusion has been made in the volume. Thus gathered, they will be found truly the flowers of Christian thought and sentiment. "*Hours of Communion*" consists of several fragmentary pieces, enforcing, with love and gentleness, "that *spiritual culture*, that *growth in individual goodness*, which is the great end of all reading, and the chief result of all religion." Both works are unsectarian, and eminently practical; and, as such, may be commended to the good and true of all sects.

10.—*Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation.* By Sir JONAH BARRINGTON, LL. D., K. C., Member of the late Irish Parliament, for the cities of Fream and Clogher. New York: D. & J. Sadlier.

The misgovernment and oppression of England towards as brave, cheerful, witty, warm-hearted, and hospitable a race of men as ever inhabited our globe, are pourtrayed in this volume with the characteristic power and eloquence of one of Ireland's ablest and most patriotic statesmen. The work was first published in Paris, in 1833; and its reproduction, now that the repeal movement is agitating not only the Irish nation, but the friends of civil and religious liberty everywhere, is well-timed, and will prove a most acceptable offering to the sons of Erin, scattered over Christendom. The volume is handsomely printed and bound, and is illustrated with numerous portraits of eminent Irish patriots, statesmen, noblemen, etc.

11.—*Fanny Herbert, and Other Tales. A Holiday Gift.* By Mrs. MARY N. M'DONALD. New York: Henry M. Onderdonk.

The exterior of this volume is handsome enough for a "holiday gift," and it possesses interior qualities that impart to it a perennial value. One who can write so well, should write more.

12.—*A Chronological Introduction to the History of the Church; being a New Inquiry into the True Dates of the Birth and Death of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and containing an Original Harmony of the Four Gospels, now first arranged in the order of the Time.* By Rev. Samuel Farmer Jarvis, D. D., LL. D., Historigrapher of the Church. 8vo., pp. 618. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is the first volume of a series, to which the learned author has been appointed as historigrapher to prepare, under the sanction of the Bishops of the Episcopal Church in the United States. It has been examined by a committee of the House of Bishops, consisting of Bishops Doane, Hopkins, and Whittingham, and pronounced by them to be a thorough and comprehensive analysis of all the evidence extant, whether sacred or profane, upon the most difficult and important points in ecclesiastical chronology, in regard to the birth and death of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. Dr. Jarvis enjoys a high reputation for deep and accurate learning, and this volume exhibits "extraordinary research and exact fidelity;" and is hailed as a production calculated to reflect honor upon himself, and the clergy to which he belongs. It is, moreover, a highly creditable specimen of American typography.

13.—*Essays on our Lord's Discourse at Capernaum, recorded in the Sixth Chapter of St. John.* By Samuel Turner, D. D., &c., &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is an attempt to confute the Roman Catholic doctrine of the "Real Presence," as advocated by Dr. Wiseman, a learned divine of that church. It of course presents the Protestant view of the subject, with all the skill, clearness, and learning, for which the author is distinguished. The arguments adduced will, of course, be as perfectly satisfactory to the Protestant, as they will be unsatisfactory to the Catholic. Who shall decide, when learned Doctors disagree?

14.—*Proverbs, arranged in Alphabetical Order. In Two Parts. Adapted to all ages and classes of People, but more especially designed for the Young, and the use of Schools.* By William H. Porter. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The wise sayings, comprehensive sentences, proverbs, or maxims, the common-sense inspiration of different ages and nations, here collected, and commented upon or concisely explained, are "worthy of particular notice, of being treasured up in the mind, and may be of great practical use." The author says the work cost him considerable attention and labor, and is expressly written, and peculiarly adapted to afford useful instruction, to refresh the memory, to store the mind, and to qualify persons of all classes to be more entertaining and agreeable companions, or members of society. "Next to a good friend, is a good book," is the initiatory proverb of the collection; and the highest compliment that we can bestow upon the author is our opinion that he has succeeded in giving a practical illustration of the last words of that proverb.

15.—*Letters from a Landscape Painter.* By the author of "Essays for Summer Hours." Boston: James Munroe & Co.

Mr. Charles Lanman, the author of these pleasant and agreeable miscellanies, is a professional landscape painter, and of course views nature through the medium of a painter's eye. He has rambled through various portions of our wide domain, in search of the picturesque, and "jotted down" his impressions, not only of rural scenes, but of men and things in general; and, to quote his own language, we find him "at one moment scrambling through a mountain gorge, and the next on the margin of the boundless sea," or in communion with kindred spirits. The volume furnishes a fine specimen of Boston bookmaking.

16.—*Mrs. Leicester's School; or, The History of several Young Ladies, related by themselves.* By Charles Lamb and Sister. New York: Henry M. Onderdonk.

The publisher of this admirable selection, from the works of Charles Lamb, has done good service to society, in thus reproducing here a real gem of English literature. It should be in the hands of every young lady, whether commencing or "finishing" her education, either at a boarding-school or at home.

17.—*Rome, as seen by a New Yorker, in* 1843–44. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Mr. Gillespie, who is understood to be the writer of these pleasant, and, we should think, faithful sketches, informs us, in the preface, that he has selected from his notes such subjects, scenes, and incidents, as have seemed to him best adapted to convey to an American the most vivid and correct notions of Rome, and presented them to the mental eye of the reader in the precise order, and with the characteristic peculiarities, which would strike his mental vision if the realities were substituted for descriptions, and were seen by the reader, as by the writer, with the ideas, prepossessions, and prejudices of an American and a New Yorker.

18.—*A Course of English Reading, adapted to every Taste and Capacity; with Anecdotes of Men of Genius.* By the Rev. James Pycroft, B. A., Trinity College, Oxford. With Additions. By G. Coggswell. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We concur with the American editor of this admirable treatise, that the title of a "Plan," instead of a "Course of Reading," would have designated its purpose more definitely. Such, in fact, it is; and a better one could not easily be devised. It appears to be just such a work as should be put into the hands of every one, young or old, who desire to pursue a course of reading, in order to derive the greatest advantage in the attainment of a thorough knowledge of any of the various subjects of human investigation. Dr. Coggswell has made such additions to the work, particularly in regard to American history, as it seemed to require.

19.—*The Works of Charlotte Elizabeth. Falsehood and Truth—Passing Thoughts—Conformity.* New York: John S. Taylor.

This little volume is deeply imbued with the Protestant spirit, and opposed to what its author considers the "insidious poison of Popery." Controversy, she considers an indispensable branch of a Christian education in our time; and hence, whether in the form of an essay, tale, or poem, she gives utterance to her vigorous mind, a blow is aimed at the Roman Catholic faith, in all its forms and phases.

20.—*The Reformers before the Reformation. The Fifteenth Century, John Huss, and the Council of Constance.* By Emile De Bonnechose, Librarian to the King of France, author of "Histoire de France," "Histoire Sacree," etc. Translated from the French. By Campbell Mackenzie, B. A., Trinity College, Dublin. Complete in one volume. 8vo., pp. 199. New York: Harper & Brothers. [The tract of time embraced in this volume is one of the most interesting and important in the annals of ecclesiastical history, the period just before the Reformation. We have, moreover, in this volume, a particular account of the connection of John Huss with the Church of Rome, resulting in his ultimate martyrdom. The author, in his preface, says—"No creed will be presented here as the only creed; no particular formula will be advanced, as the sole real expression of the truth, out of which there is nothing but error and falsehood; for we believe that it is, before all things, important to serve the Universal Church—and there is one religion in our eyes higher than all particular forms of worship—above Roman Catholicism as above Protestanism—and that religion is Christianity."]

21.—*Flowers of Fable; embracing Original Translations and Selections from La Fontaine, Croxall, Gay, Cowper, Pope, Moore, Merrick, Denis, Herder, Lessing, Pignotti, and others.* Intended for Youth. Illustrated with one hundred engravings. New York: Wilson & Co. [An excellent collection of fables, selected from a great variety of sources, and free from objectionable expressions.]

22.—*Dunigan's Illustrated Edition of the Holy Bible, according to the Douay and Rheimish Versions.* New York: Edward Dunigan. [We have received the twenty-second part of this beautiful edition of the Catholic Bible. Two parts more make the work complete.]

23.—*Library of Select Novels, No.* 45. *The Regent's Daughter.* Translated from the French of Alexander Dumas. By Charles Town. New York: Harper & Brothers.

24.—*Library of Select Novels, No.* 46. *The Maid of Honor; or, The Massacre of St. Bartholomew. A Tale of the Sixteenth Century.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

25.—*Lawrie Todd; or, The Settlers in the Woods.* By John Galt, Esq. Revised and corrected, with a new Introduction, Notes, &c., by the author. With an original Preface, by Grant Thorburn. New York: Farmer & Daggers.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

APRIL, 1845.

ART. I.—PRODUCTION OF WHEAT IN THE UNITED STATES.

WHILE there are nations on the globe, which do not produce breadstuffs adequate to the support of their population; while there are other nations, abundantly prolific in grain, whose productive masses are mostly deprived of their necessary share, by the triple exactions of landlord, churchman, and tax-gatherer, and are driven for subsistence to the consumption of coarser grains and vegetables; there is one nation, whose annual superabundance crowns the labors of the husbandman, and where the toil-worn laborer grasps for himself the choicests of the bread-stuffs he produces. What would be a luxury to the mass of European laborers, is in this country a common article of food.

The wheat growing region of the United States, now wholly, or partially inhabited, stretches over twenty degrees of longitude, and ten degrees of latitude, and embraces 500,000 square miles, or 320,000,000 acres of land. A few years since, the marketed supplies of wheat and flour were entirely from the Atlantic states. Now the crops of territories, then unknown and unsettled, fix the price. The greatest wheat growing state is now Ohio. A blight in the crop of Virginia or western New York, in times past, has caused great fluctuations in price. At this day, the crop of a whole state may experience a blight, or, indeed, be almost desolated, without making a perceptible difference in the average value. It is not within the range of probabilities, that in any future year the whole crop will be so far destroyed, as not to leave abundant production for all home and foreign demand likely to exist. The beneficial provision of Providence seems vouchsafed to this land, that its people shall be fed—and fed abundantly, for as long a period as human foresight dares penetrate.

During the last two years, the price of flour was ruinously low—hardly repaying the cost of production. The farmer, the merchant, and the politician, each offers his nostrum, which, if plenteously administered, will cure all the evils under which the wheat farmer staggers. The farmer too often attributes a depression in price to combinations among dealers,

or other local causes, operating within the six mile square within which he happens to reside. The merchant sagely issues his numerous circulars, setting forth his speculations, rarely verified by time, and sometimes proving delusive before they arrive at their destination. One set of politicians repose principally on our own country for a market, and another tell the people, that if the tariff was repealed, vast, all-devouring markets would fly open, and sweep into their ravenous jaws all, and more than all, we could produce.

The real explanation lies in the fact, that too large a portion of the industry of the country has been bestowed on wheat culture—too much wheat land cultivated—too much wheat produced. The tide of emigration has recently submerged a vast territory, whose soil is highly productive of wheat. Much of the newly subdued land, like the burr oak openings, or park country, of Michigan and Wisconsin, is found, by analysis, to be composed of the very elements most conducive to the nutriment of wheat. No single crop seems to promise so ample a return for labor as a crop of wheat. In the cultivation of wide wheat fields there is something peculiarly inviting. The farmer always rejoices in the survey of the golden ocean, waving around him to every breeze. He counts only the gross sum his bushels will repay him, and forgets the little gains, much greater in the aggregate, which the same labor, if thriftily bestowed, would more certainly accumulate. He sacrifices his ultimate interest, and a thousand comforts, for the sake of commanding one single large crop of wheat. Fields of 200 or 300 acres are not uncommon, and frequently 500 or 800 acres are put under a single fence. Foremost of the evils resulting from this system, is the disappointment of the farmer in the average yield per acre. The capabilities of western soil may not be overrated—the production certainly is. A large section of wheat growing country, with which the writer is familiarly acquainted, has not yielded an average for five years of more than fifteen bushels per acre; and the most successful experiment he has ever known, was the production of 6,000 bushels on 200 acres of land, or 30 bushels per acre. Fewer acres, better fenced, pulverized, and manured, all time has taught, is better husbandry. Productions per acre, in many portions of the great west, could easily be doubled. The wheat farmer's life is captivating, also, because affording so many weeks of leisure during the year. But from the earliest days of harvesting, till the next crop is "put in," his life is exceedingly laborious—a year's toil seems crowded into a quarter's space. In the most recently settled sections of country, yet dismally afflicted with diseases generated by miasma, hundreds are often prostrated by sickness in the very exigency when their labor is most required. Numerous instances have occurred, where large quantities of grain have been lost for want of harvest hands. Such results would seem to inculcate deeply the lesson, that employments should be multiplied, and a diversity of crops raised, and reliance no longer be placed in a single, and that a precarious crop. But the lesson passes off with the occasion, and the same ruinous course is persisted in from year to year. One error is committed by too many wheat farmers, that cannot long be persisted in with impunity. In no soil on earth, unless in some positions, where, by annual inundations, or otherwise, the soil is renovated, is there sufficient nutriment to yield successively, for a course of years, the same crop, and that an exhausting crop. Our own southern cotton and tobacco planters, in over-

tasking the soil, have been taught a severe lesson by their own temerity. Their formerly cultivated fields are often a scene of desolation—utterly abandoned—scarcely a vestige of former habitation or cultivation remaining—a sad and serious lesson to show that nature's laws and nature's integrity cannot be slighted nor violated. Wheat growers, in their ill-judged eagerness for rapid acquisition, may sacrifice ultimate prosperity, if they do not, like the southern planter, sacrifice property in the soil and the homes of their childhood. In England and France, it would generally be esteemed bad husbandry, to raise a wheat crop from the same soil oftener than once in three or four years. Wheat is alternated with green crops, and every precaution is taken against exhaustion. Even the lease protects the soil from abuse. By the adoption of a better economy in America, an equal, or nearly an equal quantity of wheat might be saved, the land preserved in a more valuable condition, and the farmer entrench himself with more numerous comforts.

Northwestern Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa, have recently been the great receptacles of immigration, and their whole dominion is capable of yielding, and most of it profusely, the great staple of wheat. There are temporary obstacles to its profitable production in some portions, particularly the great prairie regions, which time and industry will subdue. The astonishing increase of eastern supplies of wheat and flour from these states, is indicated by the following authentic statement of flour and wheat, cleared from the canal collector's office, at Buffalo, from the year 1837 to 1844, inclusive :—

Years.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Wheat. *Bush.*	Years.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Wheat. *Bush.*
1837,.....	126,805	450,350	1841,.....	618,686	1,207,135
1838,.....	277,620	933,117	1842,.....	654,423	1,228,120
1839,.....	288,165	965,000	1843,.....	880,868	1,699,724
1840,.....	639,633	883,100	1844,.....	851,181	1,777,615

This table does not include the amounts cleared at the Black Rock office, and passed through the Welland canal. Add these quantities, and it will appear that the northeastern wheat and flour trade has increased seven fold in eight years. The whole trade, therefore, if not already, must inevitably be revolutionized in the United States, by the production of the northwestern states.

A view of the relative crops of wheat, corn, and other grains, for the years 1839, 1842, and 1843, is presented as derived, for the first year, from the census of the United States, and for the last years, from estimates in the annual reports of the commissioner of patents :—

Years.	Wheat.	Corn.	All other grains.
1839,*.....bushels	84,823,272	377,531,875	153,170,155
1842,.....	102,317,340	441,829,246	187,001,600
1843,.....	100,310,856	494,618,306	181,390,368

Here is an annual production of grain, larger than that of either England or France. In what states, and in what proportions such an enormous aggregate is produced, is shown by the following tabular estimate of the crops of 1843, as taken from the report of Mr. Ellsworth, the indefatigable commissioner of patents :—

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* Neither the census nor the patent reports are deemed absolutely correct. They are quoted in this article as the best approximations to the truth, on this subject.

TABULAR ESTIMATE OF THE CROPS FOR 1843.

State or Terr.	Wheat. *Bushels.*	Barley. *Bushels.*	Oats. *Bushels.*	Rye. *Bushels.*	Buckwheat. *Bushels.*	Ind. corn. *Bushels.*
Maine,.....	785,484	273,554	1,138,007	159,672	62,568	1,390,799
N. Hampshire,.	534,782	111,643	1,470,663	378,209	140,180	330,925
Massachusetts,.	190,726	134,655	1,468,361	600,239	107,583	2,347,451
Rhode Island,..	3,376	51,959	190,303	44,617	3,845	578,790
Connecticut,....	94,622	26,495	1,424,444	934,234	387,463	1,926,458
Vermont,.....	620,695	46,250	2,721,374	278,709	229,053	1,252,853
New York,.....	12,479,499	1,802,982	24,907,553	3,677,222	2,398,354	15,574,590
New Jersey,....	971,727	9,733	3,286,438	2,335,987	682,235	5,805,131
Pennsylvania,..	12,215,230	150,398	19,826,938	9,429,637	2,408,508	15,857,431
Delaware,.....	333,197	4,508	862.819	42,486	11,560	2,739,982
Maryland,.....	3,391,535	3,246	2,817,200	779,836	94,046	6,205,282
Virginia,.....	9,004,359	89,317	12,879,878	1,249,329	360,635	45,836,788
N. Carolina,....	2,237,661	3,808	4,858,989	243,218	21,378	27,916,077
S. Carolina,....	1,326,974	3,686	1,744,198	56,848	.....	18,190,913
Georgia,.....	2,463,771	12,346	1,586,797	75,578	588	26,960,687
Alabama,.....	906,909	7,942	1,736,038	68,442	72	24,817,089
Mississippi,....	429,384	1,894	983,228	15,492	94	9,386,399
Louisiana,.....	.....	.....	126,583	2,193	.....	8,957,392
Tennessee,.....	6,317,254	4,567	9,224,053	381,164	22,620	67,838,477
Kentucky,.....	4,674,845	14,601	9,918,881	2,106,469	11,618	59,355,156
Ohio,.....	18,786,705	181,833	16,313,403	934,440	659,695	38,651,128
Indiana,.....	7,225,566	28,862	9,268,337	199,755	61,115	36,677,171
Illinois,.....	4,829,182	84,033	8,639,231	124,237	79,326	32,760,434
Missouri,.....	1,089,777	9,583	3,643,933	71,709	16,815	27,148,608
Arkansas,.....	2,986,705	878	344,717	9,465	140	8,754,904
Michigan,.....	5,296,271	143,757	3,210,716	64,195	167,212	3,592,482
Florida,.....	686	50	14,919	361	.....	838,667
Wisconsin,.....	606,740	16,324	833,247	3,689	20,455	750,775
Iowa,.....	495,611	1,505	474,856	7,360	11,906	2,128,416
Dis. of Col.,....	11,583	312	13,862	5,479	346	47,837
Total,.....	100,310,856	3,220,721	145,929,966	24,280,271	7,959,410	494,618,306

It will be perceived that, in regard to production, the states now stand in the following order: New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Indiana, Tennessee, Michigan, Illinois, and Kentucky. The single state of Ohio must, hereafter, produce annually at least 20,000,000 bushels. According to the census of 1840, the whole production of Michigan was, 2,157,108 bushels; in 1843, her crop is estimated at 5,296,271 bushels. The first year her people fed themselves without importing was 1838. In five years she has nearly 3,000,000 bushels to dispose of abroad. The crops of Iowa and Wisconsin have trebled since 1840. For a few years to come the average per centage of one year's increase over another will not probably be much diminished. The accessions of settlers have been constant. A great mass of them, struggling through the first years of their residence to obtain a livelihood, are but just beginning to raise a surplus from the acres they have subdued. The energies, heretofore exerted in ever-fresh encounters with forest life, subduing, fencing, improving, and rendering the soil fit for cultivation, is now employed in furnishing a surplus for export. In the meanwhile, the older states will sow and reap, and produce their accustomed quantities of grain irrespective of the west. We repeat, in view of all these facts, that too much of the industry of the country is bestowed on wheat cultivation. Nothing but a pervading knowledge of these facts among producers, and a concert of action among them, will avert the evils of frequent over production. If the knowledge was universal, the action would be impossible. It is probable, therefore,

that the wheat growing country must inevitably suffer from over production occasionally for years to come.

On the price which the surplus offered in market brings, depends the commercial prosperity of a large portion of our common country. If we investigate the subject, we shall find that the quantity which seeks and demands a market, in proportion to the whole production, is surprisingly small, and the amount which finds its way to foreign lands, still smaller. The most vague ideas are everywhere current, and the most vague calculations are everywhere indulged in. It is not long since we saw an estimate of this kind:—"The United States produce 800,000,000 bushels of grain—we are 20,000,000 people. Each man, woman, and child, is, therefore, supplied with 40 bushels of grain, while they can consume but 10 bushels each—leaving three-fourths of our crop for export." The reasoner seemed to forget that his horse consumed 20 bushels of grain while he consumed 1, and that the great historical fact stares us in the face, that we have never yet in a single year exported an amount of flour, and grain of all kinds, equal to 12,000,000 bushels, or an amount equal to one-sixty-fourth part of Mr. Ellsworth's estimated production of 1843. We have heard loud boasts proclaimed, that Ohio could, and did produce surplus enough to supply the whole demand from the other states. This assumption is made, that it takes one-tenth for seed, and each inhabitant consumes 5 bushels. Let us test these assumptions. Take Mr. Ellsworth's estimates of wheat and population of Ohio—allow one-tenth for seed, and 5 bushels to a person, and a surplus ought to remain for export of 14,289,021 bushels, for 1842, and 8,127,580 bushels, for 1843. But, according to good authorities, the whole amount of wheat and flour, drained from the whole valley of the Mississippi for export from New Orleans, during the year 1844, was less than 2,500,000 bushels, and the amount gathered from the whole northwest, and shipped eastward, by the way of Buffalo and the Welland canal, was less than 7,500,000 bushels, presenting an aggregate of export, from all the states west of the Alleghanies, less than the assumed average surplus of Ohio. These facts show conclusively that the great bulk of bread-stuffs are consumed in the countries where they are produced, and that the ordinary assumptions, in regard to the relative shares consumed and exported, must be grossly erroneous. The estimate for the consumption of each inhabitant in those states where wheat is merely the sole bread-stuff is, probably, much too low. It is generally placed at 5 bushels. Try it by the test just applied, or any other scrutiny sustained by facts and figures, and it will be found 7 bushels. There are always local causes operating more or less widely to cut off exports. For instance, the winter of 1842–3 was unprecedented for severity. Coarse grains and fodder, for cattle in the northwest, were consumed long before winter expired, and the alternative was presented to thousands of farmers, to lose their cattle, or feed them with wheat. The writer has seen load after load of the finest description of wheat driven to the mill and cracked up as food for cattle and horses. The proportions consumed for seed, wasted, and lost, are also always underrated. If all the assumed data are corrected, it will account for the retention in the valley of the Mississippi, of so large a proportion of its bread-stuffs. But whatever proportion of each crop may be, in the end, marketed, the price of this surplus is of vital importance to the west. This is the surplus from which the grain growing west pays its indebted-

ness, and maintains its credit. The market, at best, will be fluctuating and capricious; and on every change of price, a great population looks with intense interest. But whatever betides the crops, prices, and resources on which they depend for redemption of obligation—whether the credit of the whole states is destroyed, or the commercial character of the individual citizen totters—whether the farmer staggers under embarrassments, or toils untramelled—in every disastrous event, and in apparent adversity, the northwestern wheat growing states increase in population, wealth, and real resources, in a manner unexampled before among colonies or nations. When entirely cut off from immediate means to redeem a sinking character from commercial disgrace, industry, courage, energy, calmly surveying the future, clear acres by millions; roads are improved, and river courses are cleared; new fields are ploughed and fenced: houses, barns, and mills are erected; the school-house, and the church, indeed, whole villages and towns spring up by magic. By contributions of domestic means, by barter, by expedient, almost without a dollar of money, important enterprises are pushed to completion. The aggregate wealth doubles, triples, quadruples, and state after state treads, with giant strides, in the footsteps of Ohio, on the road to ultimate prosperity and power.

For the last two years, farmers have looked on the continued depression of the flour market in despair, and the general opinion seems to be, that the article has been sold at a price below, or nearly equal to the cost of production. During the recent political convass, the politicians of both parties have told the people there was a remedy. As hinted before, one principally relies on the creation of a foreign, the other upon nursing and extending the home market. Now, the heat of the contest has subsided, and the mists and smoke have been wafted away, reflecting men of all parties ought to be open-minded and candid enough to give so vital a question in political economy, affecting now and prospectively so many millions of our countrymen, a dispassionate consideration. It demands imperatively our attention, because affecting the daily subsistence of such vast numbers, and more particularly because this far exceeds every other agricultural or planting interest in the value of the article produced. This is true as compared even with cotton. The crop of wheat, for 1843, exceeded in value the cotton crop of that year by at least $10,000,000.

What is the foreign demand? what has it been? what does it promise to be?

The annual export of flour and wheat, (reduced to bushels,) to all countries on the globe, from the year 1790 to the present time, has not amounted to 4,500,000 bushels; and, for the last 25 years, has not amounted to 4,600,000, as will appear from the following table:—

EXPORTS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT, FROM 1790 TO 1838.

Year.	Bush. wheat exported.	Av. price of wh't in Eng. s. d.	Bbls. flour exported.	Av. price of flour at Phila.	Value of flour exp'd, at av. prc's, in Phil.
1790,.....	1,124,458	53 2	724,623	$5 56	$2,234,735
1791,.....	1,018,339	47 2	619,681	5 22	4,328,436
1792,.....	853,790	41 9	824,464	5 25	6,340,370
1793,.....	1,450,575	47 10	1,074,639	5 90	5,837,469
1794,.....	698,797	50 8	846,010	6 90	7,286,111
1795,.....	141,273	72 11	687,369	10 60	9,064,955
1796,.....	31,226	76 3	725,194	12 50	4,594,190
1797,.....	15,655	52 2	515,633	8 91	4,653,975

EXPORTS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT, FROM 1790 to 1838—Continued.

		s.	d.			
1798,.....	15,021	50	4	567,558	$8 20	$5,016,099
1799,.....	10,056	66	11	519,265	9 66	6,439,092
1800,.....	26,853	110	5	653,052	9 86	11,465,417
1801,.....	239,929	115	11	1,102,444	10 40	7,978,111
1802,.....	280,281	67	9	1,156,248	6 90	8,828,771
1803,.....	686,415	57	1	1,311,853	6 73	6,666,365
1804,.....	127,024	60	5	810,008	8 23	7,541,876
1805,.....	18,041	87	1	777,513	9 70	5,713,885
1806,.....	86,784	76	9	782,724	7 39	8,961,202
1807,.....	776,814	73	1	1,249,819	7 17	1,501,095
1808,.....	87,330	78	11	263,813	5 69	5,847,566
1809,.....	393,889	94	5	846,247	6 91	7,481,298
1810,.....	325,924	103	3	798,431	9 37	14,377,869
1811,.....	216,833	92	5	1,445,012	9 95	14,189,526
1812,.....	53,832	122	8	1,443,492	9 83	11,147,602
1813,.....	288,535	106	6	1,260,942	8 92	1,662,156
1814,.....	.....	72	1	193,274	8 60	7,514,456
1815,.....	17,634	63	8	862,739	8 71	7,130,138
1816,.....	62,321	76	2	729,053	9 78	17,291,824
1817,.....	96,407	94	0	1,479,198	11 69	11,530,662
1818,.....	196,808	83	8	1,157,697	9 96	5,337,192
1819,.....	82,065	72	3	750,660	7 11	5,555,609
1820,.....	22,137	65	10	1,177,036	4 72	5,048,248
1821,.....	25,821	54	5	1,056,119	4 78	5,447,351
1822,.....	4,418	43	3	827,865	6 58	5,160,708
1823,.....	4,272	51	9	756,702	6 82	5,601,971
1824,.....	20,373	62	0	996,792	5 62	4,150,920
1825,.....	17,990	66	6	813,906	5 10	3,988,863
1826,.....	45,166	56	11	857,820	4 65	4,542,234
1827,.....	22,182	56	9	868,496	5 23	4,820,530
1828,.....	8,906	60	5	860,809	5 60	5,300,647
1829,.....	4,007	66	3	837,385	6 33	5,928,606
1830,.....	45,289	64	3	1,227,434	4 83	10,243,019
1831,.....	408,910	66	4	1,806,529	5 67	4,947,337
1832,.....	88,304	58	8	864,919	5 72	5,380,974
1833,.....	32,421	52	11	955,768	5 63	4,318,770
1834,.....	36,948	46	5	835,352	5 17	4,582,848
1835,.....	47,762	39	4	779,396	5 88	4,038,146
1836,.....	2,062	48	6	505,400	7 99	2,986,397
1837,.....	17,303	55	11	318,719	9 37	3,491,174
1838,.....	6,201	63	4	448,161	7 79	1,670,512
1839,.....	.....	.....		916,161	.....	.....
1840,.....	.....	.....		813,542	.....	.....

EXPORT OF WHEAT, FLOUR, AND INDIAN CORN.

Years.	Wheat. Quantity. *Bush.*	Wheat. Value. *Dolls.*	Flour. Quantity. *Bbls.*	Flour. Value. *Dolls.*	Indian Corn. Quantity. *Bush.*	Indian Corn. Value. *Dolls.*
1828,	8,906	6,730	860,809	4,286,939	704,902	342,824
1829,	4,007	6,372	837,385	5,793,651	897,656	478,862
1830,	45,289	46,176	1,227,434	6,085,953	444,107	224,823
1831,	408,910	523,270	1,806,529	9,938,458	571,312	396,617
1832,	88,304	93,500	864,919	4,880,623	451,230	278,740
1833,	32,221	29,592	955,768	5,613,010	487,174	337,505
1834,	36,948	39,598	835,352	4,520,781	303,449	203,573
1835,	47,762	51,405	779,396	4,394,777	755,781	588,276
1836,	2,062	2,062	505,400	3,572,599	124,791	103,702
1837,	17,303	27,206	318,719	2,987,269	151,276	147,982
1838,	6,291	8,125	448,161	3,603,299	172,321	141,992
1839,	96,325	144,191	923,151	6,925,170	162,306	141,095
1840,	1,720,860	1,635,483	1,897,501	10,143,615	474,279	338,333
1841,	868,585	822,881	1,515,817	7,759,646	535,727	312,954
1842,	817,958	916,616	1,283,602	7,375,356	600,308	345,150
1843,	311,685	264,109	841,474	3,763,073	672,608	281,749

Our annual exports then to all the world is equal to one-twenty-second part of the crop of 1843. If we confine our calculations to Great Britain, the nation to which we sell the most flour, and with which we trade the most, and of whom we purchase $50,000,000 worth of merchandise and manufactures annually, we shall find that our annual export to that empire has been less than 1,000,000 bushels, or less than one-hundredth part of the crops of 1843. Subjoined is a statement derived from the treasury reports of exports of wheat and flour to Great Britain, from 1834 to 1843, inclusive:—

	Flour. *Bbls.*	Wheat. *Bush.*		Flour. *Bbls.*	Wheat. *Bush.*
1834,.....	19,687	none.	1839,.....	167,582	6,033
1835,.....	5,376	none.	1840,.....	620,728	615,972
1836,.....	161	none.	1841,.....	208,984	119,854
1837,.....	none.	3	1842,.....	208,034	143,330
1838,.....	8,295	none.	1843, 9 months,	19,436	none.

Thus, notwithstanding each inhabitant of that empire consumes of our wheat but about a quart annually, the demand for that quart is very fluctuating and uncertain.

If we look abroad for a market for other grains, the aspect is still more gloomy. While the annual production of other grains than wheat amounts to 600 or 700,000,000 bushels, the whole annual export of all grains, including wheat, and flour, and meal, reduced to bushels, and even oats, has never reached 2,000,000. This fact can be verified by examination of the annual treasury reports. Subjoined is a statement showing the amount exported, and the amount retained at home, of the crop of 1842:

	Wheat.	Corn.	All oth. g'ns.
Production,.....bush.	102,317,340	441,829,246	181,390,368
Export,.....	6,594,167	1,332,504	411,468
Consumed at home,.....	95,723,173	440,496,742	180,978,900

Of other grains than wheat, therefore, the foreign demand is equal to less than one-three hundred and fiftieth part.

Such has been the foreign demand during our whole existence as a nation, never sweeping off more than a mere fraction of our annual product; such has it been alike when our tariff laws were relaxed, and when they were stringent; such has it been when the whole carrying trade of the world was opened to us; such has it been when the South American republics, struggling for existence, gave us markets; such has it been while Europe was desolated by the wars of Napoleon; such has it been while starving millions abroad were crying for bread.

Does the foreign market promise to do better? Some puerile efforts have been made in Congress, and elsewhere, to show that, if our tariff was repealed, the markets of other nations would fly open to us. Tabular statements have been arranged to show that our agricultural exports decreased on the passage of the tariff of 1842. An extended view of these exports shows that their amount is governed by no such circumstance, and that they have not averaged, exclusive of cotton, the sum of $12,000,000 annually. Least of all have tariffs had any perceptible influence on the export of flour. It was never so uniform and regular in quantity as from 1822 to 1829, inclusive, a period covering the passage of both the acts of 1824 and 1828. In the year 1831, after the tariff of 1828 had got into full operation, we exported more bread-stuffs than during any year of our

national existence, except 1840. Do the advocates of this vagary expect a repeal of the corn laws of England when we shall repeal our tariff? Let them remember the conclusive vote last summer in the House of Commons, of more than two to one against a modification, (while a movement to that end is not even entertained in the House of Lords,) and the emphatic declaration of the Prime Minister, Sir Robert Peel, that the corn laws of England should never be essentially modified. The House of Lords possess one branch of government by hereditary right; they rule another by rotton boroughs and landed power; the monarch is a tool and puppet in their hands. This aristocracy, the most perfectly organized, the most perfect by prescription and in barriers thrown around it for centuries, the most endowed with intellect, and the most opulent that ever existed, finds two great towers of its defence, on which it relies for security and perpetuity, in the laws of primogeniture, which guarantees its landed possessions, and the rent roll power over minor landlords, tenants, laborers, and the whole people. It is just as likely to abandon either, as the commander of a fortress to put the torch to his own magazine, or the captain of a line of battle ship voluntarily to scuttle her. The corn laws of England will be repealed when the laws of primogeniture, the church establishment, a hereditary peerage, and the long list of abuses, on which the aristocracy fatten and subsist, are abolished, and not till then. This rank injustice then will probably never be repealed but by revolution.

Of this cunningly devised scheme, the sliding scale is the oppressive feature. This contrivance is to impose a low duty when grain is high; and *vice versa*. A merchant, therefore, ships flour from New York, when it may command a high price, say $10 per barrel, in Liverpool, and the duty is $1, but before it arrives, flour may fall to $8, and the duty rise to $2 75; thus he finds himself hunting eggs in a last year bird's nest. While his property has fallen in value, the heavier duty is imposed, and he pays dearly as the gambler for his temerity. The business is a lottery in which no prudent man will engage.

The jealous spirit with which England regards any encroachments on her restrictive system, is illustrated by the course Parliament took in regard to the Canadian trade. In 1842 and 1843, there was a respectable demand upon us from the Canadian provinces. Some reasoners have inferred that the subsequent course adopted by the mother country was prompted by a vindictive spirit, caused by the passage of our tariff of 1842. History, however, shows us that it was only a persistance in that rigid and arbitrary policy, she has systematically pursued from the days of the navigation acts of Cromwell to the present time. She saw her regulations baffled by an illicit commerce, her colonies introducing, in spite of custom-house oaths, other American as colonial wheat, and more than her colonies could produce for export. Her press and her ministers determined not to be outwitted and circumvented. They have sanctioned the imposition of a Canadian duty on our wheat, and at home left the imperial duty on her colonial far less than on other American wheat. Two objects are thus secured; the integrity of her corn law system, and a monopoly of the carrying trade of all the wheat we dispose of to the Canadas. But we need not attribute the decrease of the Canada trade to a vindictive spirit in England, or modification of laws. Another adequate cause existed fatal of itself to the trade. Numbers engaged in it were ruined, and the solvent Canadians were not idiots enough to plunge into a busi-

ness which had caused such disasters. Hence a decrease. It is by no means likely that while England, with all the solemnity of a ministerial fiat, proclaims to the world that her corn laws shall not be repealed or essentially modified, will wink at double dealing and circumvention in the importation of our wheat through the Welland canal, on much easier terms than she receives it through our Atlantic ports. Moreover, neither our country nor her people covet a back-door and circuitous trade, when she cannot enjoy an open and direct trade.

Suppose the corn laws repealed. Is our chance for a market so much improved? England now annually imports wheat to the average extent of 12,000,000 bushels, and her importation has amounted to double that quantity. We have shown that we have been permitted, heretofore, to supply from our bursting granaries one-twelvth of that amount. As soon as the British price becomes invitingly high, in rushes wheat, costing less than ours, and at cheaper transportation, from the grain exporting countries of Europe. The year 1831, was one of great scarcity in England, and during that year her import was 27,000,000 bushels; yet our treasury records show that we supplied, in competition with the serf labor of Russia, Poland, and Germany, only 4,338,687 bushels, or less than one-sixth of that amount. Embracing a period of thirty years, according to McCulloch, the United States have supplied but 4 per cent of the British importation. Prince Esterhary once answered an Englishman, who boasted that he owned 50,000 sheep, "and I own 50,000 shepherds." His brother princes, some of them own 50,000 wheat-growers. The laborer and the wheat alike belong to the prince. It makes little difference to him whether his wheat brings a high or low price—his income is still princely. If it suits his conscience, he starves his serf and gluts the foreign market. Repeal then the corn laws of England, and the American farmer can supply her market when he can place himself on a level with miserable and degraded serfs of Russia and Poland, and not till then. If he can survive as poorly fed and housed; if he can endure to go as meanly clad; if he can content himself to have his children grow up around him ignorant as his cattle, he can raise wheat and sell it in competition with a European serf.

There is much more probability that, if the trade was open and free, the serf labor of Europe would frequently drive the American wheat culturer from his own Atlantic markets, than that he can compete successfully with it on its own shores. The average price of wheat in the markets of New York for the last thirty years, has been $1 30 per bushel, while the average price at the grain exporting marts of Europe has been less than $1. It is very manifest that wheat can be transported for much less than this difference in prices, and that the American markets might frequently be inundated with foreign wheat, unless subject to a duty. It might be impossible at this moment to import foreign wheat, were the duty repealed; yet we have some instructive and pungent lessons to show that, bearing the burden of the duty, foreign wheat has come in competition with our own. During the year 1837, nearly 4,000,000 bushels of foreign wheat were imported into the United States. The following table of American prices and imports for several years, shows conclusively that, in spite of duty, wheat has been, and can be imported, and the American farmer excluded from his own markets:—

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Price of flour in New York,.....per bbl.	$5 50	$7 50	$9 94	$8 00
Import of wheat,.....bushels	238,769	583,898	3,921,359	894,536

Repeal the duty, and as soon as wheat should rise to $1 25 per bushel in the New York market, and flour to a corresponding price, foreign grain would be offered in competition with our own. The average price of wheat at Odessa, Dantzic, and Rotterdam, as ascertained by the British inspector general of imports and exports, during the year 1840, when reduced to our currency, was $1 02 per bushel. At so late a period as 1837, wheat has commanded readily $1 42 in the New York market. Here was a juncture when foreign wheat would have been imported, had there been no duty. The following tables, taken from a speech of Mr. Hudson, of Mass., throw much light on the subject :—

Average wholesale prices of Flour and Wheat, from 1831 *to* 1840, *inclusive, taken from the prices current of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, and from the entries at the custom-houses. Also, the prices on the continent of Europe, taken from the invoice prices at the custom-houses, and from other authentic tables.*

	American Prices.		European Prices.			American Prices.		European Prices.	
Years.	Flour.	Wheat.	Flour.	Wheat.	Years.	Flour.	Wheat.	Flour.	Wheat.
1831,	$5 80	$1 18	$5 50	$1 10	1837,	$9 62	$1 83	$5 25	$1 05
1832,	5 88	1 15	4 90	0 98	1838,	7 93	1 54	4 70	0 94
1833,	5 82	1 13	5 00	1 00	1839,	6 92	1 42	5 35	1 07
1834,	5 36	1 08	4 95	0 99	1840,	5 43	1 10	5 35	1 07
1835,	5 89	1 19	4 15	0 83					
1836,	7 88	1 44	4 20	0 84	Av.,	$6 65	$1 30	$4 93	$0 98

Average prices of Wheat, at certain points or marts of trade, on the eastern continent, for five consecutive years.

Hamburgh,.....	79 cts.	In the ports of Prussia,.....	82 cts.
Amsterdam,.....	82 "	On the Black Sea,.....	56 "
Dantzic,.....	87 "		

Is it just to our own citizens that whenever the price should be respectable, that a profitable commerce should be established in the importation of foreign wheat; that the great staple production of whole states and of millions of our countrymen should be sold in our large markets, at such price as European serf labor can afford it there? Is it just that, while his countrymen are paying specie for it to foreign lands, the American farmer, beyond the Alleghanies, should see his wheat rot in his granaries? When the price rises to a remunerating rate, then is the time the American laborer should reap his reward for long years of privation and loss, consequent on low prices. When prosperity dawns upon him, he does not wish to be deprived of its genial warmth. As he has incurred the losses incident to low, he would like to enjoy the blessings springing from moderately high prices.

Contingencies may arise when a protective duty may be indispensable to the farmer. That it is the duty of a government to maintain such a duty, from the facts and figures adduced, seems as clear as demonstration. If there is any citizen who should be grateful to a paternal government for throwing around him its protective arm, it is the American wheat grower. If there is any branch of industry which the government should be ever sedulous to cherish and protect, it is the production of wheat.

What is the home market? what has it been? what does it promise to be?

What proportions of the whole production of the United States finds a home, and what a foreign market, has been pretty fully shown. It is

proposed to consider the question of a home market, as affecting the domestic prosperity of the wheat grower, more at length.

It appears, by the census of 1840, that in manufactures and trades, 791,739 acting, operating persons were employed. The same census shows, under the same general head, that in all branches 4,8000,000 only were grouped as the working people. These represented and supported all the rest of the population of the United States, be they children, relations, dependants, paupers, prisoners, or drones. The proportion of the whole 17,000,000 people, supported by the 791,739 manufacturers and mechanics, were more than 2,800,000. This whole population is entirely withdrawn from agriculture, and employed at other labor. But the benefit does not end here, of such a diversion of labor. The manufacturer must have raw material. The wool grower, the miners for coal and iron, delving into the bowels of the earth for her hidden stores; the whalers, circumnavigating the earth, and drawing up from the depths of the ocean her rich resources; the long lines of transporters, are all, in a measure, supported by manufactures; and, diverted from the production of grain, become consumers. It is not too high an estimate, to say that 4,000,000 people directly and indirectly derive subsistence from manufactures. If so, this large aggregate of mouths is supplied to consume the bread-stuffs of the American farmer. Allowing the common, but too low estimate of 5 bushels each, they will consume 20,000,000 bushels annually—more than four times as much as the annual average export to all the world, and more than twenty times the average export to Great Britain.

It will probaby be a matter of astonishment to many readers, to learn that the single state of Massachusetts, with a population of, perhaps, 800,000 people, is a better market for flour than all the world besides; yet, such is the fact.

*The annual import into the port of Boston, for the years 1842 and 1843, was	610,000	barrels.
*Import via the Western railroad,	105,000	"
Estimated amount distributed by Western railroad, between state line and Boston,	100,000	"
Estimated amount imported direct into the south shore ports of Massachusetts,†	120,000	"
Total,	935,000	barrels.

It appears, by the preceding proofs, that the average export to all the world, reduced to bushels, is less than 4,600,000 bushels; yet, the import of Massachusetts shows the above large aggregate of 4,200,000. It is assumed that this single state affords a better market; because a steady, uniform, perpetual market for 42 bushels of wheat, is much better than an unstable, fickle, capricious market for 46 bushels. The United States commissioner of patents, charged with the duty, and supplied with clerks and funds to obtain all possible information relative to the production and disposal of crops, seems to have arrived at essentially the same conclusion in his report for 1843. "The single state," he says, "of Massachusetts,

* See March number of this Magazine, 1844, pp. 287, 288.

† Three-fifths of the whale trade is carried on from these ports, and two large manufacturing towns import through Narragansett bay. The almost barren counties of Barnstable, Nantucket, and Dukes, supply themselves without reference to Boston.

in the same period, (1842,) consumed more flour than was exported to all foreign countries." Thus, one customer at home on our own soil is worth a hundred customers in Great Britain. The foreign customer demands supplies from us only when driven to it by famine, and the demand may exist for a week or two during a year. The customer at home is a perpetual one, fed by us from week to week and year to year. General Jackson, in his memorable letter to Dr. Colemen, in 1824, uses the following language:—"Take from agriculture 600,000 men, women, and children, and you will at once give a market for more bread-stuffs than all Europe now furnishes." This proposition, then boldly made, startling to the unreflecting, and contrary to received notions, is creditable to the old man's penetration and sagacity in the highest degree. Its truth is fully and triumphantly verified by the case of Massachusetts—her 800,000 people furnishing not only as good a market as "all Europe now furnishes," but a better than all the world furnishes. It must be remembered that, while this state promotes this enormous consumption of bread-stuffs, still but 85,166, or less than one-ninth of the whole number engaged in manufactures and trades, reside within her borders. Allow much of this consumption to be caused by fisheries, commerce, or as you please, and allow the manufacturers to consume one-half as much as the rest of the states, and we at once perceive the home must be equal to five times the foreign demand. It appears, from the annual treasury reports, that our principle customers from abroad are, 1st. Great Britain and her possessions; 2nd. Brazil; 3d. Cuba; yet Massachusetts supplies a market doubly or trebly as good as the former. New Jersey purchases from other states twice as much as Brazil; the whale fisheries, (a single round of supplies for the fleet exceeding 100,000 barrels, while as much is consumed at home during their cruise,) a superior market to Cuba; and, finally, no other power or dominion on the face of the globe, passing the three mentioned, consumes one-half as much of our bread-stuffs as the city of Pittsburgh.

The great controlling fact, that a nation after all consumes most of its productions, and finds its best market at home, is set forth in a strong light by Senator Walker, in his famous letter in favor of the annexation of Texas. One of his strong arguments is the vast enlargement of a home market. He finds, by the census, that the aggregate production of all branches of industry in the Untied States is more than $1,000,000,000, while our annual export is but about one-tenth of that amount. But let us hear the argument. The friends of a tariff for protection, may well exclaim "*fas est abhoste doceri!*" when they hear such arguments from a supposed violent antagonist. "Our exports of domestic products," he says, "by the treasury report of 1840, amounted to $103,533,896, deducting which from our whole products by the census of 1840, would leave $959,600,845 of our own products, consumed that year by our own population of 17,062,453; and the consumption of our domestic products, $103,553,896 by the population of the world—900,000,000, would make an average consumption of $56 in value of our products, consumed by each one of our own people, and 11 cents in value of our products, consumed on the average by each person beyond our limits; and thus it appears that one person within our limits consumes as much of our own products, as 509 persons beyond our limits."

It may be assumed that, in the preceding remarks relative to the import of flour into Massachusetts, we did not allow any to be exported to other states. That state was selected for the argument, because her internal condition, her commerce inward and outward, is better known and understood. Suppose that a portion of the import of flour was paid to Vermont for wool and horses; to New Hampshire for leather, hides, cattle; or to Maine for lumber, and to transporters; the market is no less created and established by her agency for the same quantity of flour. It may also be said, in regard to the general argument, that mechanics are embraced in our 791,739 operatives. This is not the time and place to discuss the question of how much mechanics need protection. Conceeding that on one hand too many are embraced, it is more manifest that too few are embraced on another. The wheat grower has a direct interest in the continued business of the collier of Pennsylvania, or lumberman of Maine. Their livelihoods destroyed, they cease to consume, and become competitors with him in raising wheat. Let the markets for beef and pork cease or be diminished, and how rapid and easy the transition of the raisers to his own pursuit. In the number of this Magazine for September, 1839, is a tabular statement of the aggragate results of the industry of Massachusetts, prepared by the Secretary of State, by which it appears that the gross amount was $86,000,000. It must instantly occur to any reflecting mind, that a vast quantity of raw material must be necessary to her manufactures, on examination of the table, and that the gatherers of their raw materials must be fed. We have an approximation to these amounts in a speech of Mr. Hudson, of Massachusetts. With all possible industry and fidelity, he gathered information relative to the consumption by Massachusetts of the products of other states. Including cotton, it was $42,000,000. Below is a table, gathered from the treasury report, for the year 1841, and from Mr. Hudson's speech, which will illustrate the subject:—

	Exports for 1841, to all the world.	Consump. of Mass.
Corn, and other grains,.....bush.	1,615,000	3,730,000
Wool,.....lbs.	none.	8,000,000
Beef, pork, hams, and lard,.....value...	$2,400,000	$2,800,000
Lumber, of all kinds,.....	2,815,987	3,690,000
Leather and hides,.....	332,000	7,600,000
Pig lead,.....	96,748	1,450,000
Tar, pitch, turpentine, &c.,.....	684,514	1,200,000

Finally, exclusive of cotton and tobacco, the United States exported of agricultural productions $16,737,462, while in Massachusetts, alone, $34,700,000 was consumed. The wheat grower clearly understands that it is equally his interest that these large quantities of produce from other states should find a ready market side by side with his wheat.

What is the remedy for the desperate condition in which the American wheat grower has frequently found himself during the last two or three years? Without attempting a full answer to this difficult, and perhaps intangible question, it will be enough, perhaps, to throw out a few hints:—

1st. Much might be done by a multiplication of employments on each individual farm. No two farming operations can be more neatly and thriftily combined than sheep culture with wheat culture. The support of a moderate number of sheep on many wheat farms would be clear gain, to say nothing of the large expenditure which might be saved by the manufacture of wool at home. Many debts can constantly be avoided for for-

eign luxuries, by the substitution of domestic delicacies. In this connection honey and sugar may be mentioned. Such an article as madder might be cultivated and sold rather than purchased. If he must use and consume that offensive and nauseous weed called tobacco, there is no necessity for the farmer's paying a bushel of wheat for a pound of this questionable luxury. Almost all the wheat growing country will produce, if not the best, very excellent tobacco.

It is of vital importance to a wheat growing country, that its grain should be manufactured at home, and be exported in flour, and not in the berry. The cost of transporting wheat from the interior of Illinois or Michigan, to the Rochester mills, is nearly double the cost of transporting flour.' This cost comes out of the producer. The farmer sells, if he sells at all, at such a price, that, transportation added, it can be sold at the market price in Buffalo and Rochester. The risks of transporting wheat are very great; of flour much diminished. There are generally two buyers of flour for one of wheat, along its whole track to the great marts at the East. But the local advantages of manufacturing wheat at home, are numerous—a large number of men are taken from agricultural, and placed in mechanical employments. The most worthless of oaks, or ash timber becomes valuable for staves and hooping. The offal every where in new countries, more or less necessary to supply deficiencies of coarse grains is retained where most needed.

The question has often occurred, must not a people, receiving and exporting articles cheap in value, coarse in fabric or texture, and heavy of transportation, always trade to great disadvantage with a people who condense and concentrate labor in more valuable and portable forms. History tells us of more than one people who has thus been utterly impoverished. A hand-loom weaver at Leeds, in England, sells his yard of cloth for two bushels of American wheat or its equivalent. The same cloth is finally sold on the prairies of Illinois for ten bushels of wheat to the farmer. The weaver has received two bushels for the same article for which the farmer paid ten. Whence this discrepancy—this great waste? Allow three bushels to have been consumed in duties, where are the five bushels? gone to build up two great cities, at Liverpool, and New York, and to establish magnificent fleets of line ships and steam packets. Factors, importers, jobbers, traders, and the much abhorred capitalist, have each at every step carried out their share, and finally in this kind of trade, no ways reciprocal and fair, however free, every body is more sure of his profit than the poor weaver and farmer.* These men should be brought together. Cut off this vast waste in transportation, and the double, quadruple profits, paid for gratification of folly or vanity, or endured through ignorance—stop the sacrifice of limb and life—adopt the injunction of Jefferson, comprising common sense, experience and philosophy, to "place the manufacturer by the side of the agriculturalist."

The obvious question arises, does not this reasoning prove the propriety of establishing manufactories at the west, instead of on the Atlantic shores? Certainly. Be it so, "*Sauve qui peut.*" The pursuit is for truth. A certain degree of maturity, however, is necessary in a country to enable it to pursue manufactures extensively and successfully. There must be ac-

* Thanks are due to Horace Greeley, Esq., the editor of the Tribune, for the outline of this argument. Honor to whom honor is due. It is irrefragable, come from whom it may.

cumulated capital. There must be a surplus, or at least a sufficiency of labor always at hand. There must be deep furrowed channels of trade to and fro. There must be skill and experience enlisted. Consequently, in a new country, large manufacturing establishments take root with difficulty. But, unlimited capacity for manufacturers exists throughout that region which threatens to glut our whole people with bread-stuffs. Every facility exists there for the cheap and ready transport of cotton. Wool can be raised as cheaply and abundantly as any where else on the globe. Water power is distributed over the whole area. Every indication leads us to suppose, that on the borders of this region copper exists in more exhaustless abundance than in those mines which have been worked in Europe for centuries. Lead is found in hardly less profusion. Beautiful prairies repose on substrata of solid coal, and iron is sprinkled everywhere over the wide expanse; means of subsistance can in no part of the world be supplied cheaper. If, therefore, well developed lungs will breathe in a wholesome atmosphere, the west will finally manufacture.

To plunge prematurely into enterprises that cannot be sustained, is the height of madness in new settlers. To seize in humble ways the means Providence has strewn in their pathways and relieve themselves from ruinous drains from abroad, is both their interest and duty. While lead is worth two and a quarter cents per pound at Galena, and three and a quarter cents at Chicago, and Milwaukie, why should it be sent to an eastern state to be converted into white lead, re-conveyed and sold in Illinois and Wisconsin at eight cents per lb., or 50 per cent higher price than it could have been manufactured for at home. Transporting potash and lead from the west to the east, converting it, mingled with eastern sand, into glass, and re-transporting it for the consumption of the wheat grower, seems an absurdity too great for toleration. While iron ore is scattered so profusely, and charcoal can be had for chopping and burning, it seems the height of infatuation for the wheat grower to sell his wheat at a very low, and purchase imported iron at a very high price, and pay the enormous costs of transportation himself, to and fro, of two heavy articles. What countless little benefits would flow from even a limited manufacture and conversion of iron. Establish a blast furnace in a western country. The first effect is to take great numbers of men from farming employments, and make them consumers instead of producers. The next effect is to give employment for the spare days of the industrious citizens. Great heaps of hitherto worthless dirt, are sold at handsomely remunerating rates. These very marshes are the most valuable of the farmer's possessions, and his land is enhanced ten fold. Wood is in demand and wood-land consequently rises in value. The neighboring farmer, his sons and his teams, can be constantly profitably employed. No man but a farmer is aware of the quantities of iron a farmer consumes. Iron is a terrible leech upon his industry. It is, moreover, a cash article. The choicest of his products, at a low price, will only pay for it. But establish the furnace, and wheat, corn, beef, pork, hay, vegetables, wood, coal, iron ore, lumber, butter or eggs, will purchase his iron at half the former cost. Every mechanic around thrives, and finds steady employment, and good pay, instead of precarious employment, and low pay. The forge and a hundred shops for the conversion of iron, spring up like magic, and every article manufactured is cheapened to the consumer. This picture is not a visionary one—it is real. Such pictures can be found already. Hundreds of others should spring to life on the wide expanded canvass of the great west.

To economize in the various ways indicated by these hints, would require the deliberate, energetic, and sometimes concerted action of communities. If our own fears are correct, that the farmers will have to rely on small and fluctuating profits for some years to come, nothing will guarantee them even their present doubtful prosperity, but a division of their labor, a multiplication of agricultural employments on their own homesteads, and the establishment of many limited, but not costly branches of manufacturing industry, such as of iron, wool, glass, paper, in the vicinities where required. The purchase of articles, the raw material of which is raised about them, transported to different states, there manufactured and sent back again loaded and burthened with the profits imposed by operators, transporters and factors, should be esteemed contraband; and such a trade, so ruinous and exhausting in every view upon the scanty resources of the country, should not be prolonged. Necessity may cure the evil and prosperity stop the impoverishment. When the price no longer pays the cost of prodution, one man after another economizes, curtails, abandons the pursuit for other callings. Thus a necessity, not so potent perhaps as that arising from war will as certainly change, multiply and diversify employments, as the late war with Great Britain did in the Eastern States. If no other course serves to avert the evil, let there be meetings and conventions, let there be unions and combinations, whose objects shall be to abstain from luxuries, some articles of doubtful necessity, and perhaps some comforts, till they can be produced from the bountiful materials which Providence has scattered in such boundless profusion over the wheat growing west. In the efficacy of such measures, there may be some doubt. Still, public attention is aroused, errors are pointed out, safer paths of industry indicated, and the proper minds bent efficiently to a proper purpose.

Art. II.—THE WESTERN RAILROAD MOVEMENT.

It is about fourteen years since the first railroad for the conveyance of passengers, the Liverpool and Manchester, was completed and brought into use. Its effects on moralists, philanthropists, and mechanical philosophers, resembled that of a bomb thrown into a peaceful camp. At once the whole world of hopers and projectors was thrown into a state of intense excitement, which was soon communicated to the whole mass. The rapid augmentation of paper credits in England and this country, promising to furnish the means—railroads were projected to pass through every town, village, and hamlet in the state. A great many were surveyed, many commmenced, and some completed. Of those now in operation, several pay well on the cost, but the greater number have proved unprofitable. These have been constructed either prematurely, or where the public wants have not called for them. As the general business of the country revived after seven years prostration, the value of shares in these works increased. For a time, nearly all the railroads in the country were under the ban of public opinion, almost as much as speculations in corner lots. The tide is evidently again turning in favor of these improvements. It is not, however, a blind or headlong impulse, like that which existed in 1836. It looks back calmly on the past, discriminates what has been wisely done, from what has been done in the

spirit of wild speculation, and is ready to embark with caution in new enterprises. In selecting routes for these expensive iron ways, there was, of course, at the commencement, a wide field for the exercise of a well-informed judgment. The country, in all its length and breadth, was open for a choice. Some were so strongly pointed out by the finger of nature, that he who ran might read. Such was the route from New York to Philadelphia and Baltimore, and that between Utica and Albany. These completed, it was plain that the great commercial city of Boston should be connected with the lake region. Yankee enterprise said, and it was done. The commercial and manufacturing towns of New England have already access to lake Erie by locomotive engines. Soon the great commercial emporium, New York, will link herself to this chain. Will this stop at Buffalo, or will it pass westward, and become the great road between New England and the Mississippi? No sane man can doubt that it will be continued, some day, to the centre of the great western valley. The practical question now to be answered is—can any part of it be made now, with a fair prospect of paying interest?

We believe there is a portion of it which should be constructed without delay; and we will briefly give our reasons for this belief. The location, between Buffalo and the west end of lake Erie, is plainly directed by the commercial towns on its southern shore, and the uniform level of that shore. From Toledo westward, the indications of nature are not less plain. The shortest route across the Michigan peninsula, that will approach lake Michigan, and admit a continuous line to the Mississippi at its great eastern bend, near the mouth of Rock river, is the natural route, against which no competition can be successfully maintained. It should be connected, either in its main line or by branches, with Michigan city and Chicago. From Toledo to Michigan city, 186 miles, and to the west line of Indiana, 220 miles, the line has been surveyed by competent engineers, and found highly favorable. If it were continued to the Mississippi, the whole length of railroad from Toledo to the Mississippi would be less than 370 miles. The portion from Toledo to the west line of Indiana is that which would pay best; and, as we believe, warrant the outlay of money necessary to complete it without delay. It would encounter no successful competition, in winter or summer; whereas that between Buffalo and Toledo would have a large portion of travel and trade diverted by the steamers on the lake, for some five months every year. The counties through which this road would pass are admirably adapted to the growth of wheat; and, although they are at present but partially settled, such is the ease with which a large portion (being openings and prairies) could be improved, that the construction of the railroad would itself nearly fill it with settlers, and cause it to produce a large surplus of wheat before the work should be completed. A district of country, equal to 40 miles in breadth, lying on both sides of this road for, say 180 miles, might be safely calculated on to use it for its exports and imports. This district alone has an area of 7,200 square miles—about equal to the state of Massachusetts. With an average population equal to that of Ohio in 1840, it would contain 270,000 inhabitants. We believe it would contain that number by the time the work could be completed, if entered on within one year. This route would take all the travel, summer and winter, between the country eastward of Toledo and a vast extent of country lying westward, northwestward, and southwestward of its western termi-

nation. Much of the travel between the southwestern states, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and the northeastern states, may be expected to take this route, until a more direct road is made from St. Louis to Toledo. This travel is now large, and no intelligent man need be told that the summer migrations of the people of the lower Mississippi country may be relied on, with a moral certainty of a regular increase. In the winter, a railroad between Toledo and Chicago would take all the travel and trade of the whole of Wisconsin and Iowa, and the north half of Illinois, in the intercourse of these extensive regions with the Atlantic states. It would also draw largely from the peninsula of Michigan. In five years, Wisconsin, Iowa, and the north half of Illinois, will have a population of at least 700,000, being nearly equal to that of Massachusetts. Can it be possible that this road, well built and well managed, would not be profitable? Its construction would be cheap. At the rate of that part of the line from Toledo to the east line of Indiana, as estimated by experienced engineers, the excavation for the whole line to Illinois would be 756,270 cubic yards, and the embankment 1,025,000 yards for a single track. At 10 cents per yard, the excavation and embankment for the 220 miles, would cost $188,127. The cost of the bridges and sluices, estimated in the same way, would not exceed $110,000. The cost of superstructure, grubbing, and clearing, would amount to $428,000. The two last estimates were made in 1818, when the cost would have been at least 25 per cent higher than at present, owing to cheaper provisions and the subsequent settlement of the country. If 10 per cent be added for contingencies and engineering, the cost of the whole work, prepared for the iron, would be $716,127. The cost of preparing and putting on the heaviest T rail, say 70 lbs. to the running yard of rail, would be, say $7,700 per mile, or, for the 220 miles, $1,694,000. The whole cost, exclusive of depots, cars, and engines, would be $2,410,000, or a fraction less than $11,000 per mile. Including depots, locomotives, cars, &c., it might cost $13,000 per mile, making the aggregate $2,860,000. What would be its probable income when brought into operation? By that time it would command the business and travel of not less than 1,000,000 people living westward of Toledo, eight or nine months of the year, in all their intercourse with the east. During the period of navigation on lake Michigan, say three or four months of the year, the number depending on it could scarcely be less than 500,000. The country on which this population is settled and settling is not excelled in natural resources, and it is undeniably receiving more immigrants than any other great section. In seven years its numbers will be doubled. The road will then have the winter trade and travel of 2,000,000 living westward of Toledo, and the summer business of half that number.

One of the most striking features of this road line, as surveyed, is the close proximity of its grades to a horizontal line. That part in Ohio, west of Toledo, has in no instance a grade over 32 feet to the mile; and, without great additional expense, the grade may be reduced to a maximum of 25 feet to the mile. The greatest curvature will exceed 3,000 feet radius. Indeed, very few curves will be needed; and for amount of straight line in proportion to its length, few, if any routes in the country can equal this. The estimate of the cost of that portion in Ohio, made by the engineer, in 1838, was $7,588 per mile. This, he says, is a liberal estimate, including engines, cars, depots, &c., for a very substantial

road with a flat rail. The same work included in his estimate, could now be done 50 per cent less than it would have cost in 1838. His estimate for iron is $90 per ton.

The Indiana part of this road was surveyed under the direction of James Seymour, by Messrs. Farnum and Hardenburgh. Their estimate was made with reference to grading the road for a double track, and laying a single track of railway with the flat iron bar. The total length of line from the eastern to the western boundary of the state, is 156 miles, and may be traversed (say the engineers) by locomotive steam engines, propelling trains of loaded cars, at any reasonable velocity, there being no grade that will materially affect or retard their progress. Their estimate of its cost, in January, 1838, was $1,308,236—something less than $8,400 per mile. This includes everything necessary to put it in active operation, so as to transport at least 300 tons per day. If the grading were for a single track, the cost in Indiana would now be about the same per mile, as is above estimated for that part in Ohio. Since these estimates were made, tl at part of the line which was then a wilderness, embracing most of its length, has been settled; some of it with considerable density, and all of it so that it has an agricultural surplus. This, with the greatly reduced price of labor, would materially lessen the cost at this time.

Mr. Seymour estimated the number of passengers that would pass over the Indiana portion of the road, 88,125, at $4 each; and the tons of freight at 106,400, at 3 cents a ton per mile—making the gross income, including $10,000 for transporting the mail, $745,550; from which he deducted the estimated annual expenses, $102,025, leaving, as the clear income of the 156 miles, $542,525; being nearly 50 per cent on the cost. That this estimate was extravagant at that time we cannot doubt.

Since then, the country on which it would depend has nearly trebled in population, and more than trebled its business. And yet, we should hardly make the number of passengers greater than 80,000, if the road were now ready for use. It would be safe to put it at 100,000 by the time the road could be put in operation, if commenced within a year.

This would average 137 per day each way for the whole year. At $6 each, the amount would be $600,000. If we make the moderate estimate that the freights would pay the expenses and keep the road in repair, we have the fair result of 25 per cent profit, with a moral certainty of a regular annual increase.

Of the character of the country along the line it may be well to particularize. In Ohio, about one-half the line is through openings, and the other half through timbered land. Both are well adapted to the growth of wheat, and contain an abundant supply of timber for the construction of the road. Through Indiana, the line traverses an almost uninterrupted chain of prairies, along, or near the route, in its whole extent, of sizes convenient for cultivating the entire surface, and of a productiveness to yield a large surplus for exportation. Many of these prairies are already reclaimed, and the whole will soon be under cultivation.

The water power, for durability and ease of management, is excelled nowhere, in proportion to its magnitude, and it is very abundant after the waters of the St. Josephs, of Michigan, are reached. Everywhere in this region, the productive wheat crop may be converted into flour in the neighborhood where it is grown. For 30 miles along the same portion

of the line, are extensive beds of iron ore. These are now wrought to some extent, and eventually must add considerable to the resources of the country. It is stated by Joseph Orr, president of the Indiana road, in his address to the stockholders, that, during the season of 1837, insurance on goods shipped from Buffalo to the head of lake Michigan, taking the average of a number of receipts which he had compared, cost $12 50 per ton. This would pay the freight on a railroad 416 miles long, at the rate of 3 cents a mile per ton. He truly says: "No thoroughfare now projected, is more rational in its character, or will be more general in its benefit—none uniting more natural advantages, or combining more interest. Nor is there any, in the vast extent of line, more direct. All others, natural or artificial, must be circumscribed in their usefulness by the close of navigation."

The charters given by Ohio and Indiana are of the most liberal charac er. The first in its operations would be perpetual, the last is to continue seventy-five years, with a right reserved to the state to buy out the stockholders after thirty-five years, by paying the cost with 18 per cent interest. Five years were given in Indiana to complete the road in that state. Such an opportunity as these charters hold out for an investment which must be exceedingly profitable, would, in Europe, or the Eastern States, be seized with avidity. As a project, it stands out bold and strong, before any other of the kind in this country. Let the reader place himself before a large map of the United States, and first fixing his eyes on the 40th parallel of latitude, south of lake Michigan, let it then survey all the country north of that parallel, and west of that longitude, and it will take in nearly one-fourth of our entire country. What other route, during the fall, winter, and spring months, can the travel of this great region take to the commercial and manufacturing states eastward, than the railroad under consideration? It has no other: for it would be preposterous to suppose it would go by way of New Orleans, and not at all probable that it would go down to St. Louis, and thence by the national road. But if the prospects of profit from this road were small instead of large on its completion, there are persons enough interested in its construction to make it politic to build it without delay. How deeply the owners of the railroad from Buffalo to Boston and New York are interested, needs but few words to illustrate. In winter, almost every traveller passing eastward on it, would be a passenger added to the whole line of travel from Buffalo to Boston or New York; and a great portion passing west, will have come over those eastern roads from those great marts of trade. The next Congress will probably make a large appropriation for the Cumberland road.

That road has a strong tendency to draw travel from the broad west to Baltimore and Philadelphia; and the farther it is continued west, the wider is the sweep of country which it will control. New York and Boston have a great stake in securing the winter, spring, and fall travel and trade of the great valley. With a railroad from Buffalo to the Mississippi, above the mouth of Rock river, and a branch of this road from Elkhast county, Indiana, to St. Louis, Boston and New York, would control the trade of the best part of the great valley, during the entire year. They would then have no dull season of winter; but their public houses at all seasons would be full of merchants and business men from the west and south. We say south, for, with these roads completed, the Louisi-

ana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas travel would, to a great extent, come this way. If a railroad were made as straight as practicable from Toledo to St. Louis, its length would not exceed 440 miles. Branching at Elkhast, its length would not be over 465 miles. This will be its best route, because it would pass so far from the Wabash and Erie canal as not to interfere with its business. Indeed, it would be about midway between that canal and the Illinois canal and river, and thus be out of the way of rivalry, and at the same time have its length increased on the whole line but 25 miles. Supposing Alton to be taken in its route, by either course, and the increase of distance over the most direct route will not exceed 20 miles, and that over a level country, where locomotives may go 25 miles an hour.

This, then, is the great plan to be carried out in the future. But the link between the west end of lake Erie and the navigable waters of the Illinois river, is that which should be first constructed; and the time for it to be commenced with a certainty of success has arrived.

We have spoken of the railroad from Toledo to the west line of Indiana as a link of the grand railway from New England to the Mississippi; and some reasons may be expected why the route of that railway should take the south shore of lake Erie in preference to the north shore through Canada. To say nothing of the present advantage of having this great national thoroughfare within the limits of our own government, abundant reasons exist for this preference, some of which will be briefly stated. The auxiliary ways of intercourse now in operation, and soon to be constructed, coming northeastward from a great part of the Mississippi valley, seeking a communication with the manufacturing and commercial regions east of lake Erie, will throw an amount of business on to the south shore of the lake, that would be sought in vain from the comparatively small peninsulas of Canada West. Beginning at the west end of lake Erie, we will give a succinct account of these auxiliaries: 1st. There is the Wabash and Erie canal, coming in from the teeming valley of Wabash, 300 miles long. Entering this, 70 miles above the harbor of Toledo, is the Miami canal, with its navigable feeders, 200 miles long, coming from Cincinnati. 2nd. Fifty miles eastward of Toledo, at Sandusky city, comes in from the southwest, the Mad river and lake Erie railroad, which, connecting at Springfield with the little Miami railroad, gives a rapid passage from the central point of Ohio basin, at Cincinnati, to the lake. At the same point also comes in from the south, the Sandusky city and Mansfield railroad—upwards of 60 miles long. In Cleveland, 60 miles northeastward of Sandusky, the Ohio canal, with its branching arms, constituting a system of canal and slackwater navigation of upwards of 600 miles, will pour in a large amount of business. At Erie, 100 miles below Cleveland, a canal about 140 miles long comes in from the south, connecting it with that great manufacturing hive—Pittsburgh. Here, then, are tributaries to the proposed railroad enough to excite the cupidity of the monied man to a high degree, if the speculations of 1836 had not left on his mind a dread of everything western. More than 1,200 miles of navigable canals, and near 300 miles of tributary railroads, that will all be in full operation, and all having a tendency to pour the productions and travel of the best portions of the wide west into the contemplated grand trunk railroad! Nor is this all. At this moment plans are in agitation, to make other railroads leading from the interior to the lake shore,

that will soon grow into important results. A charter to construct a railroad from Wellsville, on the Ohio, to come in at Cleveland, has just been granted by the legislature of Ohio; and an old charter has been revived to make a railroad from Columbus to the same city. We believe that both will be made, before our lake shore railroad can be brought into operation. Plank roads from the interior to the shore, are also about to be made; and a great part of the best roads in Ohio, on which great labor has been expended, have a direction from the interior to the route under consideration. The business that the commercial towns on this shore (several of them rapidly growing into cities of note) would give this road, in their intercourse with each other, and with the east, is well worth being taken into account. To the feasibility of the route, no serious objection can be urged. The shore is nearly of a uniform elevation above the lake—so that the road might be almost perfectly horizontal. The main cost of its superstructure would be the erection of bridges, for which abundant material of timber and stone exist on the spot.

But we feel that enough, and more than enough has been said in favor of this link of the great iron chain that is to grapple the west to the east. We will, therefore, return to the main subject of this article—the railroad across the base of the peninsula of Michigan. The water route from lake Erie to the head of lake Michigan has been regularly opened to the keels of commerce but little more than ten years; yet it has become one of the greatest thoroughfares in the nation. About three large steamers a day, including propellers, besides a great fleet of sailing vessels, have found full employment in plying between lake Erie and Chicago the past season; and every year is adding a large per centage to the business of the preceding year. To the friends of the proposed railroad, it is a question of extreme interest, whether a large portion of this great and increasing business may not be diverted from its circuitous water channel, and be made to roll across the isthmus that separates lake Erie from the head of lake Michigan. The following reasons in favor of this diversion seem to possess no little strength. The rairoad connecting Albany and Boston is 200 miles long, although these cities are but 140 miles apart in a straight line. The distance by water between them is 450 miles. Between Toledo and the south end of lake Michigan is 200 miles, and by water between the same points 750 miles. Our railroad will be straight, with trifling exceptions, through its whole length; that of Boston and Albany loses by a deviation from a straght line 60 miles in 200. The Massachusetts road has cost upwards of $40,000 per mile, with grades of 82 feet to the mile. The Toledo road, made as good, would cost but one-third as much with a grade of 32 feet to the mile, and not over two-fifths as much with a grade of 20 feet to the mile. The road connecting Boston and Albany was built with a view of transacting the travel and transportation business between these points, in successful competition with the water route; and also with the expectation that the 200 mile railroad from Albany would, to some extent, divert the western trade from the 145 mile water route to New York. The 200 mile railway has competed successfully with the 450 mile water route from Boston to Albany. Even flour (one of the heaviest articles in proportion to its value) has given the railroad the preference. Of the 244,984 barrels passing, in 1844, from Albany to Boston, 151,721 barrels passed over the railroad. How would it have been, if the distance had been 300 miles

greater—the cost of the railroad three-fifths less—and the power of traction required two-thirds less? Unless the object of Massachusetts in extending a railroad to Albany was utterly Eutopean, a railroad from Toledo to the west line of Indiana, near the south end of lake Michigan, will control the business now passing around from the head of that lake to lake Erie. The central railroad of Michigan in its business of the last year affords a practical, but faint illustration of the profits to be expected from this. That road extends 110 miles—from Detroit to Marshall. The westen section was in operation only after the 10th of August. If we suppose the average length run during the year, to have been 100 miles, and the cost of that 100 miles what such a road could now be built for—say $1,000,000—the clear income (as stated by Governor Barry) of $121,750, would give a dividend for the year of over 12 per cent. The board of ifiternal improvement of Michigan estimate the receipts of the road, for 1845, at $275,000. If the expense bears the same proportion to receipts as in 1844, the clear income will be $158,400, or nearly 16 per cent on a capital of $1,000,000. Now, this central railroad of Michigan does but little more than the business of the country through which it passes; having as yet not been pushed far enough toward lake Michigan to compete, to any great extent in summer, with the Chicago steamers. The country west of Toledo, and near the line of the proposed railway, is not less fertile than that traversed by the central railroad, and the obstruction to an easy grade and cheap construction are much less, and more easily overcome. But its great advantage is the control it will hold of the entire fall and winter business of northern Illinois and the whole of Wisconsin, during the long season of suspended and highly dangerous navigation of lake Michigan. If, in addition to this, it can be made to enter into successful competion with the lake route in summer, in the carriage of passengers and freight—thereby sucuring the immense business now centering in Michigan city, Chicago, and other ports at that end of lake Michigan, how strong beyond any other road, become its claims on the attention of men who wish to invest in railroad stock. The certainty, that all the goods on lake Erie, moving on their way to the country west and southwest of Chicago, would find the cost of transport on this road smaller than the insurance around the lakes, would seem to render it certain that, besides salt, no up freights would be carried by water; and in consequence that down freights would have to pay the loss and profit on the upward voyage. This would materially enhance the price of down freights by water, and thus give the railroad an additional advantage in the competition. With a heavy T or H rail, and a grade of not over 20 feet to the mile, we believe that competition may be made overwhelmingly successful.

Art. III.—COMMERCIAL SURETISHIP:

THE DEFECTS OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF PRIVATE SECURITY—PLAN OF A REMEDY.

It is a fact well known to all, that there is, in the city of New York, and in the adjacent cities and villages, a very large class of persons holding places of trust, such as clerks in banks, secretaries, agents, and collectors, who are required by their employers to give security for the honest discharge of the duties of their stations. In the state of New York

alone, there are about three hundred incorporated companies, nearly one-half of which are banking institutions; and all of them, it may be said, require from their principal officers or clerks such security as we have mentioned. The bonds given in such cases are usually in an amount deemed large enough to cover any defalcation likely to happen, and are signed by one or two persons as sureties, and are designed to continue for some length of time.

That it is proper to require security in such cases will be readily admitted; but that there are hardships, dangers, and defects in the present system of private security, it will be my endeavour to point out, together with a brief plan of a remedy.

To become security for another, or to ask another to become security for you, is amongst the most unpleasant necessities in all the details of business. It has ever been so, and so it will continue to be; for the principle is founded in the very nature of man. Some persons, from feelings of delicacy, will shrink from the one; others, from sad experience, have been compelled wholly to forswear the other; and it is difficult to say which of the two is finally done with the greatest reluctance. On the one hand, some, in every respect trustworthy, are not so fortunate as to have wealthy friends or acquaintances to whom they can apply for such favors; while, on the other, men of property may not wish to have their estates encumbered by such outstanding liabilities. One practical result of this state of things is, that many persons are virtually shut out from places of trust and profit, of the nature already mentioned.

Take the case of a young man who is desirous of procuring the situation of teller in a bank, for which he is in every respect well fitted. The directors of the bank are willing to bestow it upon him, but the usual bond of say $10,000 is required of him. Now, as is often the case, the applicant is unacquainted with any man who is able (though he may be willing) to become his surety. Therefore, he must stand aside for some other one, possessing perhaps less honesty, though more money or richer friends.

Take another case. An officer of the army, the prime of whose life has been spent in the service of his country; but in view of whose declining years, or increasing family, the office of paymaster (an office of some profit, and for which he is well qualified) is tendered to him. Gladly would he accept of it; but when the bond is demanded, his fellings, alike delicate and honorable, will not allow him to ask any man to become his surety. He has not mingled with business men, or bestowed like favors on them; and he has, therefore, no one to whom he can go in such an emergency. Virtually, therefore, he is debarred from the situation.

After private security has been obtained, a formidable objection to it is found in its inadequacy, or frequent failure to meet the purposes for which it was intended. Amidst the fluctuations of individual fortune, especially in this country, it is but a common thing that a man who is considered responsible to-day is insolvent to-morrow; and hence how seldom it is that defalcations are made good by sureties. It is very desirable, if practicable, to remedy these serious evils in business life.

The plan proposed, is the establishment, in the city of New York, empowered by legislative enactment, of a guarantee society for providing security for the fidelity of persons in situations of trust on payment for an

annual premium, with an actual and sufficient capital. In other words, to make a matter of business of it (not favor) upon the ground that it is a fair and legitimate object of insurance, for it is a species of insurance. The idea is startling; so was the idea of marine, fire, and life insurance, when first thought of as a business; and it may be maintained that every obligation which can be urged against this species of insurance, can with equal force be brought against life insurance. Both undertake risks, for premiums estimated to be sufficient in each individual case. One may have bad lives palmed off upon it, the other bad characters, but in both, the good must make up for the bad, with this single difference, however, that while the risk in one case increases from the time it commences, in the other it decreases. Is there sufficient data, from which the guarantee society could fix upon a safe and proper premium? This is an important inquiry, but in fire, marine, and life insurance, the difficulty has been already overcome. Entire certainty is not expected. Though it is admitted that men are not now irresistibly controlled in good or bad actions, by the misterious influence of the stars, as ancient philosophers maintained, yet such is our belief, and such has been our experience, and the results we have witnessed, that it is evident there is some law or system in operation which is nearly uniform in its effects upon the conduct of men, and if there be this uniformity, it is sufficient for our purpose.

An examination of our commercial calendar will show about the same number of crimes committed annually, and an accurate history of the last thirty years will exhibit a great degree of regularity in the number of defaulters annually, amongst persons in places of pecuniary trust.

We can now estimate prospectively the number of crimes that will be committed, or the number of defalcations that will occur in the course of a coming year, with nearly or quite as much certainty, as we can the number of ships that will be lost at sea, the amount of damage done by fire, on land, or even the aggregate of the bills of mortality. Man is not more likely to exhibit his changeableness by one species of dishonesty than by another; he is not more likely to become untrustworthy in his pecuniary affairs, than careless or corrupt in the manner of keeping the fires about his buildings. Human nature is not more fickle than the winds that sweep over the sea, nor more uncertain than the hour of death. The conclusion therefore is that a just rate of premium could be easily fixed upon, and with not more hazard than exists in other cases of insurance. By way of illustration, suppose 500 clerks should become insured in the guarantee society for $500, each, and should each pay a premium of $10, making a fund from premiums alone of $5,000. This would be sufficient to provide for ten delinquents to the full amount insured without disturbing the capital.

Admitting the practicability of such a society, the objection most likely to be first brought against it is, that it being a mere business matter, a greater inducement to dishonesty would be held out to persons obtaining its guarantee than now exists in ordinary cases. In answer to this, it may be stated that experience shows under the present system frequent cases of delinquency. Many of these occur no doubt, because the person first obtained his situation more by the preference of some particular friend, or on account of his own ability to give the requisite bond, than for his known character for integrity. The inquiry now is not (as it should be) is he honest, is he capable? but, whom are we to oblige by this? or can

be furnish the usual security? Experience has also shown that it is not the best connected or most wealthy man that always makes the safest trustee for the funds of others, but the strictly upright, of regular business habits. Applicants to the guarantee society would undergo a rigid examination, before a committee whose business it would be, without favor, to make the most careful inquiries as to fitness and character; and if the case admitted of a doubt, the application would be declined, and the employer would be required to exercise all the usual care and watchfulness over the conduct of the employed. Further, it would be an imperative rule of the society, through a stationary attorney, to prosecute and bring to justice every delinquent—thereby affording a striking contrast to the present custom, now too common, of hushing up such matters through the interference of friends who are often bondsmen. Under such restrictions, and in view of such certain punishment, it cannot be contended that the guarantee society would offer additional inducements to breaches of faith. On the contrary, while it would open the door to places of trust and profit alike to all, the worthy (though poor) it would effectually close it to all others, and furnish a security far greater than exists under the present system.

There is another very numerous class of persons holding more public stations, such as administrators, guardians, receivers, sheriffs, surrogates, treasurers and many others, who are required by law to give such security as we have mentioned. In a word, it may be stated, could the public records be examined, and the aggregate of bonds given by such officers ascertained, the amount would be astonishingly great. In these cases, two sureties capable of justifying under oath, in usually large sums, are required, and we are borne out in saying that the same difficulties arise in obtaining them, as exist in the other class of cases above alluded to. The law allows small fees to these officers, but none to their sureties, and in many cases real hardships occur arising out of the necessities of the case. Take the case of an administrator. It not unfrequently happens that a wealthy man dies without making a will, possessed of say $200,000, existing in personal property. In that case, our law requires the administrator to execute a bond with two or more complete sureties in a penalty not less than $400,000, conditioned that such administrator shall faithfully execute the trust reposed in him. What person, though he be a father or brother, and fully able, but would, with the greatest reluctance, execute such a bond, and thereby encumber his own estate, to the amount technically at least, of the whole penalty. The same may be said of guardians for the estates of infant children, and receivers appointed by the Court of Chancery. The law is imperative, and nothing can be done in these capacities until the bonds are given and approved, and this cannot be effected without favor from some one.

True, a guarantee from the society would not be security in conformity with the present statute, but the end would be obtained by the society's assuring the bondsmen, or the law could be changed accordingly.

There is another view of this subject which is deemed of great importance to men of fortunes who have a care for what is to become of their property after death, as well as to legatees, annuitants, and all beneficiaries under wills. We refer to the case of executors and trustees, whom the law does not require to give any security for the vast amounts liable to come into their hands; the exceptance of these offices being considered

rather as favor to the divisor or guarantee. What man is there possessing a large estate, who does not hesitate long before he names in his will the persons who are to take charge of his affairs after his death, and how frequently it happens, notwithstanding the greatest precaution, that the persons finally appointed turn out to be unfit and unworthy; hence the poverty and want following in the train of defaulting executors and trustees. Now it would be an easy and simple thing for the testator even before his death to procure a guarantee from the society as to the conduct of his executors, or to require in his will that they themselves should apply a small portion of the estate for that purpose; or to appoint an additional executor solely to do it, or it might be effected by legatees, annuitants, or any person interested therein, on their own account. A trifling additional expense in settling up large estates is as nothing compared with the evils of dishonesty amongst the agents appointed to do it. Under the additional security furnished by the guarantee society, the man of wealth could leave the world in peace, while the recipients of his bounty could travel in foreign lands free from the ordinary cares and anxieties about the management of the estate at home.

One other suggestion. Merchants and others who have debts outstanding, particularly in the south western states, frequently meet with losses in consequence of the attorney, who has collected the money, failing to pay it over to them. This in most cases originates in an unfortunate selection of the attorney, for it is difficult to obtain the necessary information, to to enable us to make a proper choice. Let the attorney, then, who might be able to procure the guarantee of the society as to his conduct generally, but make the fact publicly known, and while the money of the client would be secure, the business of that attorney would greatly increase.

Our last inquiry will be whether it is probable that such a society would find business enough to warrant its creation. We have the fact that there is not a society of the kind in the United States; consequently, for a while, at least, there would be no competition. Where now hundreds of marine, fire and life insurance companies are established throughout the Union, and are doing a very extensive as well as profitable business, cannot one guarantee society, pursuing a business of an equally legitimate character, find something to do? Much would depend upon the amount of capital possessed by the society, and upon its officers in control; and these should be, the one ample, and the other unexceptionable. The vastness of the amount of property and business of this great city and country is wonderful. The state of New York, alone, has upwards of $600,000,000 of wealth, and many of the other states are not far behind her. So much property cannot be managed without the existence of many, very many, fiduciary trusts. By removing the present difficulty of obtaining security, the number of persons from whom security would be required, would be greatly increased, and men whose characters would obtain for them the guarantee of the society, would, in all cases, be preferred to others. But admitting the business for a while to be light, the losses, if any, would be but trifling, as the capital should be safely invested, bearing interest.

Enough has been said perhaps to convince most men that the plan is not visionary, or the execution of it impracticable. Still there remain others who are slow to admit the soundness of theories, until they have been tried. To these it may be said that although no society of the extent proposed has (it is believed) been anywhere established, yet the

first part of the subject, relating to clerks, secretaries and collectors has lately received the attention of some men in England, who have already published to the world some of the arguments herein advanced in its favor; and in 1842, Parliament granted a charter to a society accordingly, but of its operations or success, thus far, nothing definite has appeared in this country.

In conclusion, the subject commends itself alike to all classes of men, to the rich as well as to the poor, to the friend of equal rights, as well as to the philanthropist, to all who delight to see merit rewarded, and who make character, not money, their only true test of merit.

ART. IV.—PRODUCTION OF SALT IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

IT is generally known, we presume, that the state of New York owns the salt springs, and the lands which are necessary for the manufacture of this important article of consumption and commerce. The constitution of the state inhibits the sale of this property. The lands are leased on condition that the lessees will erect works on them for the manufacture of salt; and the duty paid to the state on every bushel made, is the only rent exacted. This duty is designed to give to the state a fair rent for the use of the land possessed by them, and also to pay the expenses of superintendence and inspection. An act of the state exists, authorizing a bounty to be paid on salt, coal, lead, gypsum, &c., on proof of the delivery of these articles at certain specified points. This act was limited to two years, and expires on the 18th day of April, 1845. It will be necessary, therefore, for all who are interested directly in the manufacture of salt in this state, to apply for a continuation of this law, or for such reduction of the duty on each bushel of salt manufactured, and of the rates of tolls for its transportation on the state canals, as will be equivalent to the act of 1843, referred to above.

The act of 1817, which authorized the establishment of the fund for the Erie and Champlain canals, raised the duty on salt from three to twelve and a half cents per bushel, and pledged the revenue derived from this source to the redemption of the debt contracted for the construction of those canals. The constitution of 1821 ratified this pledge, and provided further that the duty should not be reduced below twelve and a half cents per bushel, until the canal debt was paid. In consequence of the reduction of one-half of the duty on foreign salt by an act of Congress, an amendment to the state constitution was proposed in 1832, and ratified in November, 1833; authorizing the state duty on salt to be reduced by the legislature; but not below six cents per bushel, while the same is appropriated and pledged by the 10th section of the 7th article of the constitution. In 1834 an act was passed, (chap. 10,) reducing the duty on salt from twelve and a half to six cents per bushel, which is the duty at present paid. An amendment to the constitution, proposed in 1834, and ratified in 1835, authorized the transfer of the salt duties from the canal to the general fund, after a sufficient amount of money should be collected and safely invested for the payment of the original canal debt; but no authority was given to reduce the duty below the minimum fixed by the constitutional amendment of 1833. In 1840 an act was passed, (chap. 288,) authorizing the canal board to fix such rates of toll upon those arti-

cles transported upon the canals which are not specifically enumerated in the list of the rates referred to in the constitution, as shall, in their judgment, be most conducive to the improvement of internal trade and the interests of the state. Under this law the canal board reduced the toll on lead, coal, &c., below the constitutional minimum of non-enumerated articles; and, in April, 1841, authorized a drawback of 73 per cent of the toll paid on the transportation of coal from the west to the tide water, and the same per cent on the amount of toll paid on anthracite coal from tide water to Utica.

In May 1841, an act was passed, (Chap. 183, §17.,) authorising the commisioners of the canal fund to employ an agent to visit the western states to assertain whether the revenues of this state could be increased by altering the tariff of tolls, or allowing a drawback of a portion of the duties charged on the manfacture of salt. Two agents were employed, and from the information obtained, the commissioners of the canal fund, on the 12th, of July, 1841, adopted resolutions to allow a drawback of three cents per bushel on all Onondaga salt shipped at Elmira, Owego, or Binghampton, down the Susquehannah river: to allow four cents per bushel at Beaver, Pennsylvania; five cents per bushel at Columbus or Portsmouth, Ohio: to allow a drawback of 81 per cent on the amount of canal tolls on the Erie canal, west of Syracuse, for Onondaga salt delivered at Beaver or Portsmouth; and to allow a drawback equal to the whole duty of six cents per bushel paid to the treasury, on all salt delivered at West Troy or Albany.

In adjusting the canal tolls in 1843, the canal board restored the rates on coal, lead &c. to the constitutional minimum, and rescinded the resolution authorising a drawback out of the canal tolls of 73 per cent on coal, and 81 per cent on salt transported on the canal, for the reason that the present board considered it an indirect mode of reducing the revenue from tolls, contrary to the intent of the constitutional inhibition.

When this determination was made known to the persons interested in the articles referred to, they applied to the legislature and procured the passage of a law authorising a direct payment from the revenues of the general fund, as equivalent for the drawback from the canal tolls, previously enjoyed under the resolutions of the commissioners of the canal fund of 1841.*

Under the law referred to, the following sums have been paid from the revenues of the general fund, as a bounty on the articles specified, viz:—

On salt delivered at tide-water,	$107,902 85
" " " Lafayette, Indiana,	7,198 39
" " " Newark, Ohio,	1,272 25
" " at some point out of the state, by way of Buffalo,	16,142 75
" " " " " " " " " Oswego,	2,481 61
" " " " " " " " " Elmira,	1,308 24
" " " " " " " " " Owego,	1,611 96
Total,	$138,118 05

No applications have been made for salt delivered at Portsmouth, on the Ohio river, at the southern termination of the Ohio canal, or at Beaver, Pennsylvania, two points embraced in the law of 1843.

The bounties paid from the treasury on other articles since the passage of the act of 1843, are as follows, viz:—

* Annual report of the comptroller of the state of New York, made January, 1845.

On Coal,	$56,246 46
lead,	2,629 06
gypsum,	2,030 84
empty casks,	393 37
Total,	$61,299 73
Total on salt,	138,118 05
Grand total,	$199,417 78

The following is a comparative statement of the number of bushels of salt delivered at the points specified, in each of the two last years, and the amount paid for bounty in each case, viz :—

	1843.		1844.	
Where delivered.	Bushels.	Bounty.	Bushels.	Bounty.
Tide-water,	531,815	$41,008 06	880,191	$66,894 79
Buffalo,	176,542	3,530 45	644,772	12,612 30
Lafayette,	11,880	609 72	186,387	6,588 67
Oswego,	100,521	402 19	519,865	2,079 42
Elmira,	14,825	580 65	18,180	727 59
Owego,	8,702	348 10	37,042	1,463 80
Newark,	.....	.....	25,445	1,272 25
Total,	844,286	$49,479 17	2,118,882	$91,638 88

The amount of toll paid to the state on the salt thus transported, was, in 1843, $18,894 21, and in 1844, $39,930 14: and also six cents per bushel on salt at the manufactory, amounting in 1843, to $50,657 16, and in 1844, $127,132 92.

The annual report of the superintendent of Onondaga salt springs, which embraces the entire salt works of the state now in successful operation, as laid before the legislature of New York on the 13th of January, 1845, is now before us, and we proceed to lay before our readers a full statistical view of the production of salt for the year 1844.* It appears from the official report that there have been manufactured and inspected in the town of Salina, which enbraces the villages of Syracuse, Geddes, and Liverpool, and of course the Onondaga salt springs, during the year 1844, of—

Common or fine salt, ... bushels	3,358,240
Coarse or solar salt,	332,418
Ground or dairy salt,	312,896
Total,	4,003,554

Being an increase over 1843, of 876,054; over 1842, of 1,711,651 bushels; and over any previous year, of 662,785 bushels. It will be perceived, by examining the following table, that the increase has been principally at distant points, where a bounty is paid under the act passed April the 18th, 1843. The above increase may be attributed principally to the operations of the above law. Should it expire by its own limitation, and the same rate of duty and tolls be imposed that was levied previous to its passage, no doubt is entertained by the superintendent that the amount which will be manufactured in 1845, will fall short of 3,000,000 bushels, but if re-enacted it will exceed 4,500,000 bushels.

* For an article on the "Trade and Manufacture of Salt in the United States", and of New York, see Merchants' Magazine for April, 1843, vol. viii, no. iv. Also, for statistics, &c., of the manufacture of salt in New York in 1843, see Marchants' Magazine for May, 1844, vol. x, no. v, page 442 to 447.

Statement of the amount of Salt delivered at the different points named in the act of the 18th April, 1843, and the bounty paid on the same.

Where delivered.	Bushels.	Bounty. cts.	mills.	Tot. bounty.
Tide-water, or the junction of E. and C. canals,	878,769	7	6	$66,787 77
Oswego,	562,464	0	4	2,277 19
Buffalo,	676,094	2	0	13,521 88
Lafayette,	114,671	5	0	5,741 31
Elmira,	18,189	4	0	727 59
Owego,	35,542	4	0	1,403 86
Newark,	41,475	5	0	2,073 78
Dansville,	.....	4	0	.....
Binghamton,	.....	4	0	.....
Beaver,	.....	5	0	.....
Portsmouth,	.....	5	0	.....
Total bounty,	.....	.....		$92,533 38

Turk's Island and Liverpool salts have always been considered pure and safe to be used for any purposes; and, therefore, salts whose standard of purity will compare with them cannot be questioned. Professor Beck has made several analyses of the New York or Onondaga coarse salt, and the Turk's Island kind of salt used for packing meat, and in every instance the Onondaga solar salt has exhibited a larger amount of pure chloride of sodium than the Turk's Island. And we believe the fact well established, that no purer salt is now used than that manufactured in the state of New York at the Onondaga works.

Dr. Beck observes: On referring to the analysis of the best varieties of foreign salt obtained from salt springs, it will be found that the proportion of chloride of sodium (pure salt) which they contain, varies from 935 to 988 in 1,000; but only one reaches the latter degree of purity. It is now admitted, all other things being equal, that the antiseptic, or preserving power of different varieties of salt, depends upon the proportion of pure chloride of sodium which they contain. On the whole, I do not hesitate to say that the Onondaga coarse salt, (by which I mean the salt manufactured by solar evaporation at Syracuse and Geddes,) is more pure than any of the imported kinds, and that the "Hope Factory" table salt will advantageously compare with the best qualities of Liverpool brought to this country.

What is said by Dr. Beck in relation to the table salt manufactured at the "Hope Factory," is equally true in relation to most of the table or dairy salt made in New York. The great mass of salt manufactured here, is denominated "common" or "fine salt," the quality of which, until the manufacturers began seriously to compete for the New York market in 1843, was far from being pure. But since that period it has been materially improved, and the superintendent thinks will now advantageously compare with the best qualities of salt brought to this country.

The superintendent of the state salt works states the following as the results produced by the bounty law alluded to in the former part of this article:—

1st. It has given to the manufacturers extensive markets from which they were previously almost entirely excluded.

2d. It has had a material influence in improving the quality of our salt.

3d. It has secured to the state its usual amount of revenue derived from the manufacture of salt.

The following table shows the whole amount of the different kinds of salt inspected in the town of Salina, during the year 1844, as follows :—

Dates.	Coarse.	Fine.	Dairy.	Aggregate.
From the 1st to the 6th January,	284.43	1,588.14	22.00	1,895.01
4 weeks ending February 3,....	242.37	26,550.55	784.09	27,577.45
" March 2,.....	138.02	25,837.21	1,353.27	27,328.50
" March 30,.....	.....	11,465.11	2,470.30	13,935.41
" April 27,.....	8,133.52	156,631.40	35,262.00	200,027.36
" May 25,.....	29,121.46	302,815.36	49,883.19	381,820.45
" June 22,.....	34,579.11	433,684.48	51,718.29	519,982.32
" July 20,.....	30,201.01	492,187.06	39,562.22	561,950.29
" August 17,.....	52,713.40	409,748.46	40,882.03	503,344.33
" September 14,.	39,546.38	433,537.37	25,262.14	498,346.33
" October 12,....	46,298.52	390,693.02	31,741.35	468,733.33
" November 9,...	70,265.21	416,949.02	22,070.52	509,285.19
" December 7,....	19,344.18	237,689.01	11,578.10	268,611.29
Up to January 1st, 1845,.....	1,548.22	18,859.19	305.24	20,713.09
Total,.....	332,418.47	3,358,238.02	312,896.50	4,003,553.43

The following table exhibits the whole amount of salt inspected at the different villages in the town of Salina, during the year 1844, as follows :—

1844.	Salina. Bu. lbs.	Syracuse. Bu. lbs.	Liverpool. Bu. lbs.	Geddes. Bu. lbs.	Agg'gate. Bu. lbs.
From 1st to 6th Jan'y,	479.22	1,221.01	155.16	39.18	1,895.01
4 weeks end. Febr'y 3,.	6,215.18	17,026.51	2,774.12	1,561.20	27,577.45
" March 2,.	11,541.09	10,388.37	3,575.32	1,823.28	27,328.50
" March 30,	8,311.30	5,462.22	108.00	53.45	13,935.41
" April 27,.	74,988.04	63,762.50	52,819.00	8,457.38	200,027.36
" May 25,..	173,059.50	114,075.31	62,488.46	32,196.30	381,820.45
" June 22,.	217,771.10	147,030.01	106,835.23	48,345.54	519,982.32
" July 20,...	253,566.45	146,652.29	115,770.39	45,960.28	561,950.29
" Aug. 17,..	215,562.53	155,350.46	85,005.04	47,425.42	503,344.33
" Sept. 14,.	221,792.08	133,248.01	107,727.00	35,579.24	498,346.33
" Oct. 12,...	192,624.29	151,003.37	84,490.04	40,615.19	468,733.33
" Nov. 9,...	225,778.53	153,256.19	79,644.28	50,605.31	509,285.19
" Dec. 7,...	107,581.46	80,291.19	52,353.37	28,384.39	268,611.29
Up to January 1, 1845,	4,471.42	13,140.36	610.11	2,490.32	20,713.09
Total amount,....	1,713,745.27	1,191,910.44	754,357.28	343,540.00	4,003,553.43

The whole amount of the different kinds of salt inspected in the village of Salina, during the year 1844, is as follows :—

Dates.	Coarse.	Fine.	Dairy.	Agg'gate.
From the 1st to 6th of January,..	.....	467.22	12.00	479.22
4 weeks ending February 3,.....	.....	6,094.00	121.18	6,215.18
" March 2,.....	.....	11,096.37	444.28	11,541.09
" March 30,.....	.....	8,120.30	191.00	8,311.30
" April 27,.....	.....	63,149.04	11,839.00	74,988.04
" May 26,.....	.....	154,506.12	18,553.38	173,059.50
" June 22,.....	.....	196,709.38	21,061.28	217,771.10
" July 20,.....	.....	235,024.22	18,542.23	253,566.45
" August 17,.....	.....	194,462.49	21,100.04	215,562.53
" September 14,....	1,634.06	206,698.50	13,459.08	221,792.08
" October 12,.....	3,142.48	173,977.37	15,504.00	192,624.29
" November 9,.....	4,019.13	211,453.00	10,306.40	225,778.53
" December 7,.....	.....	101,582.04	5,999.42	107,581.46
Up to January 1, 1845,.....	.....	4,471.14	0.28	4,471.42
Total,.....	8,796.11	1,567,813.39	137,135.33	1,713,745.27

The whole amount of the different kinds of salt inspected at Syracuse village, during the year 1844, is as follows:—

Date.	Coarse.	Fine.	Dairy.	Agg'gate.
1 week ending January 6,.....	284.43	926.14	10.00	1,221.01
4 weeks ending February 3,.....	200.09	16,208.23	618.19	17,026.51
" March 2,.....	138.02	9,347.36	902.55	10,388.37
" March 29,.....	.....	3,217.48	2,244.30	5,462.22
" April 27,.....	8,071.14	32,269.08	23,422.28	63,762.50
" May 25,.....	29,056.10	54,769.40	30,249.37	114,075.31
" June 22,.....	34,522.53	83,211.06	29,295.54	147,030.01
" July 20,.....	30,047.31	96,566.29	20,038.25	146,652.29
" August 17,.....	51,632.30	84,308.45	19,409.27	155,350.46
" September 14,....	36,322.36	85,174.43	11,750.34	133,246.01
" October 12,.....	35,665.26	99,198.04	16,140.07	151,003.37
" November 8,.....	51,455.50	90,067.41	11,732.40	153,256.19
" December 7,.....	16,342.31	58,401.48	5,546.52	80,291.19
3 3-7 weeks ending Dec. 31,.....	1,240.00	11,602.40	297.52	13,140.36
Total,.....	294,979.55	725,270.33	171,660.12	1,191,910.44

The whole amount of the different kinds of salt inspected in the village of Liverpool, during the year 1844, is as follows:—

Date.	Amount.	Date.	Amount.
Week ending Jan. 6th, 1844,	155.16	4 weeks ending August 17,...	85,005.04
4 weeks ending February 3,.	2,774.12	" Sept'mb'r 14,	107,727.00
" March 2,....	3,575.32	" October 12,.	84,490.04
" March 30,...	108.00	" November 9,	79,644.28
" April 27,....	52,819.00	" December 7,	52,353.37
" May 25,.....	62,488.46	Up to January 1st, 1845,.....	610.11
" June 22,.....	106,835.23		
" July 20,.....	115,770.39	Aggregate,.....	754,357.28

The whole amount of the different kinds of salt inspected at the village of Geddes, during the year 1844, is as follows:—

Date.	Coarse.	Fine.	Dairy.	Agg'gate.
1 week ending January 6,.....	.....	39.18	.....	39.18
4 weeks ending February 3,.....	42.28	1,474.20	44.28	1,561.20
" March 2,.....	.....	1,817.28	6.00	1,823.28
" March 30,.....	.....	18.45	35.00	53.45
" April 27,.....	62.38	8,394.28	0.28	8,457.38
" May 25,.....	65.36	31,050.50	1,080.00	32,196.30
" June 22,.....	56.14	46,928.37	1,361.03	48,354.54
" July 22,.....	153.26	44,825.28	981.30	45,960.28
" August 17,.....	1,081.10	45,972.04	372.28	47,425.42
" September 14,.....	1,589.52	33,937.00	52.28	35,579.24
" October 12,.....	7,490.34	33,027.13	97.28	40,615.19
" November 9,.....	14,790.14	35,783.45	31.28	50,605.31
" December 7,.....	3,001.43	25,351.24	31.28	28,384.39
Up to January 1st, 1845,.....	308.22	2,175.10	7.00	2,490.32
Total,.....	28,642.37	310,796.14	4,101.05	343,540.00

The following statement will show the amount of Onondaga salt that has been delivered at Buffalo and Oswego, from 1839 to 1844, inclusive:—

Delivered at Oswego.		Delivered at Buffalo.	
1839,.....barrels	203,543	1839,.....barrels	142,390
1840,.....	349,453	1840,.....	119,533
1841,.....	430,879	1841,.....	105,643
1842,.....	294,443	1842,.....	61,459
1843,.....	193,830	1843,.....	144,244
1844,.....	275,136	1844,.....	156,021

Art. V.—THE MINING INDUSTRY OF FRANCE.

In the Merchants' Magazine for January, we published an interesting article on the manufacturing industry of France, which we translated from the *Revu des Deux Mondes*, written by M. D. L. Rodet, a valued correspondent, residing in Paris. In a late number of the London Literary Gazette, we find an interesting paper from G. R. Porter, of the British Board of Trade, which we have selected as one of the few we consider expedient to publish almost without abridgment. It embodies in a comprehensive form an evidently accurate digest of the latest French official documents, touching the mining interest of that country. And, in connection with the useful information already given to the readers of this Magazine, on the manufacturing industry of our neighbors across the Atlantic, we feel quite certain it will be carefully studied by a large class of persons in this country, interested in developing the vast mineral resources of the United States. At the present time, when the most strenuous exertions are being made for the advancement of the material interests of this country in all their leading branches, and while those exertions are being attended by the measure of success which usually accompanies industry directed by intelligence, it must be interesting to know whether other nations are engaged in the same pursuits, and in what degree success may have crowned their efforts also.

COAL—IRON—LEAD—SILVER—ANTIMONY—COPPER—MANGANESE—VALUE OF BRITISH METALS EXPORTED TO FRANCE.

Our mining industry, if not the greatest, is without doubt, one of the greatest sources of our wealth. It has been one of the chief means whereby we have been enabled to take and to maintain the situation which we occupy among the nations of Europe. The knowledge of this fact has naturally led to this consequence, that other countries have striven to rival us so far as the means for such rivalry have been within their reach, and that their governments have shown a desire to foster and encourage pursuits from which they have expected to draw results commensurate with those which have thus excited their emulation. In no country have greater efforts to this end been made than in France. Whether the means whereby success has been sought have been the most judicious that could have been used on the part of the legislature of that country is, however, very questionable.

The latest of the official documents that has been hitherto compiled, having reference to the mining operations of France, relates to the year 1841, being five years in advance of the returns brought forward at the meeting of the section of the British Association in Newcastle. It will be interesting to compare the result obtained at the end of that interval of time, as an element of importance towards forming a judgment concerning the future progress of the mining industry of France. With this view the facts will be presented, as nearly as possible, in the form given to the inquiry in 1838.

The system of government inspection of the mines in France was begun in 1832, during which year, as well as in 1836, and 1841, the value of the principal mineral productions raised in that country was as follows:—

	1832.	1836.	1841.
Coal, lignite and anthracite,	f. 16,079,670	f. 26,607,071	f. 33,159,044
Iron and steel,	87,312,994	124,384,616	141,789,560
Silver and lead,	856,673	821,534	774,033
Antimony,	71,233	305,032	155,251
Copper,	247,680	196,924	278,676
"	105,150	152,671	147,483
Alum and sulphate of iron,	1,007,595	1,760,607	2,052,043
Total,	f. 105,750,995	f. 154,228,455	f. 178,356,090
Or, in sterling money,	£4,230,040	£6,169,138	£7,134,243

The actual increase of value realized from the production of these mineral substances will be seen to have been—

During 4 years, 1832 to 1836,.....	48,477,460 f.,	or 12,119,365 f.	per annum.
" 5 " 1836 to 1841,.....	24,127,635 f.,	or 4,825,527 f.	"
" 9 " 1832 to 1841,.....	72,605,095 f.,	or 8,067,233 f.	"

The per centage increase in 1836 over 1832, was 45·84, or 11·46 per annum. The per centage increase in 1841 over 1836, was 15·64, or 3·12 per annum. And for the whole nine years, 1841 over 1832 was 68·65, or 7·63 per annum.

COAL.—The number of coal-fields which were open in 1836 was 46. This number was in 1841 increased to 62, of which number 9 furnished anthracite only, and 14 lignite only; the other 39 furnished bituminous coal, 5 among them yielding anthracite also. These coal-fields are situated in 41 of the 68 departments into which France is divided. [The most and least productive may be enough for our quotation, though Mr. Porter gives them all.]

	Tons.		Tons.
Loire,.....	1,193,110	Cote d'Or,.....	258
Nord,.....	893,325	Dordogne,.....	133
Saone and Loire,.....	316,426	Ain,.....	96
Gard,.....	274,234		

Two departments, Moselle and Lot, which each produced a small quantity of coal in 1836, had ceased to do so in 1841. The quantity raised in the former year was 3,061 tons in Moselle, and 60 tons in Lot. On the other hand, the following departments, 13 in number, from which coal was not obtained in 1836, have since been made to yield that mineral—some of them in comparatively considerable quantities: Bouches du Rhone, 64,777 tons; Isere, 37,207 tons; and ten others down to Ain, 96 tons; and making a total of 160,769 tons. This quantity may not appear very considerable to those who are accustomed to the magnitude of mining operations in this country; but the importance of the beginning thus made will not be undervalued, if we consider that of the 30 coal producing departments in 1836, the aggregate quantity yielded by 22, or 11-15ths of the whole number, was less in that year than the quantity thus newly produced in the above 13 departments in 1841, and that twenty of those 22 departments in which coal-mines were worked in that year, then produced very nearly double the quantity they yielded in 1836.

The total quantity of coal, anthracite, and lignite, raised in 1841 amounted to 3,410,200 tons. In 1814 the produce of all the coal mines in France was only 665,610 tons. This quantity was about double in 1826, the production in that year having been 1,301,045 tons. In the following ten years this increased quantity was nearly doubled, the quantity raised in 1836 having been 2,544,835 tons. The increase during the last five years to which the statments reach, has therefore been 34 per cent; but if computed upon the produce of 1814, the difference between 1836 and 1841 amounts to 130 per cent. The increase during the whole period of 27 years has been 412 per cent. The quantities raised in each of the years above named, and the increase obtained between each period, have been as follows:—

Years.	Quan. raised. *Tons.*	Inc. since 1814. *Tons.*	Inc. since 1826. *Tons.*	Increase since 1841. *Tons.*
1814,.....	665,610	.....	.....	.....
1826,.....	1,301,045	635,435	.....	.....
1836,.....	2,544,835	1,879,225	1,243,790	.....
1841,.....	3,410,200	2,744,590	2,109,155	865,365

The number of coal mines in work during 1841 was 256, showing an average production of 13,321 tons per mine. The average production in 1836 was only 9,863 tons.

The number of workmen employed in raising various kinds of coal in France, in 1841, was 29,320, of whom 22,595 worked in the mines. The average quantity raised to each person employed was 116 tons, being the same quantity as in 1836, when the number of persons employed was 21,913.

The value assigned in the official documents to the produce makes the cost of each ton amount, in 1836, to 11*s.* 3½*d.* per ton, and in 1841 to only 7*s.* 9½*d.*; the average value raised by each workman, which in 1836 amounted to 65*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.* had therefore fallen in 1841 to 45*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.*, or nearly one third. There are no means afforded for ascertaining in what proportions this saving has resulted from economy in the working, or from diminished wages or profits; in whatever manner the saving may have arisen, it is however an important fact, that the cost of production has in so short a space of time as five years been reduced to so great an extent as 30 per cent, without preventing the continued extension of this branch of employment.

We have no means whereby to ascertain correctly the quantity of coal raised in Great Britain, but there are good grounds for believing that it is at least ten times the quantity that was raised in France in 1841. From parliamentary documents we know that

The quantity shipped coastways from one port to another, in Great Britain and Ireland, in 1841, was.....tons	7,649,899
The quantity exported to British colonies and foreign countries, in the same year, was.....tons	1,848,294
Together,.....tons	9,498,193

But we know that for all great manufacturing purposes, smelting, casting, and forging iron, and other metals for glass making, in the potteries, in our cotton, woollen, flax, and silk factories, coal is used which is produced on the spot, and therefore is not included in any accounts of shipments. It has been estimated that in our iron-works alone the consumption amounts to 6,877,000 yearly; and it will not be thought unreasonable to assume that a like quantity is used in all other great branches of manufacture which are carried on among the various coal fields. It was ascertained by a deputation from the body of coal owners of Durham and Northumberland, who were sent through the kingdom for the purpose of making the inquiry in 1816, that the quantity of coals distributed by canals and other modes of inland communication from the coal-fields of Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Warwickshire, and Staffordshire, to the east, west, and south of the kingdom, amounted to 10,808,046 tons; and there can be no doubt that at this time the quantity thus distributed must be much greater. These quantities amount to more than 35,000,000 of tons; and as the number of persons of all ages and both sexes employed in coal-mines in Great Britain, in 1841, was found to be 118,233, it follows that the average quantity raised by each person is 253 tons, or about 120 per cent more than the average quantity raised by each person from the coal mines in France.

The use of coal in France is not limited to the supply obtained from the mines of that country. Considerable and constantly increasing quantities are yearly imported from Belgium, from the Rhenish provinces of Prussia and Bavaria, and from England. The quantity so imported, in 1814, was 165,345 tons; in 1826 it had reached 505,180 tons; in 1836 it had further advanced to 999,452 tons; and in 1841 the quantity imported was 1,619,160 tons. Of this last mentioned quantity, the importations were from the following places:—

From Belgium,.....tons	992,226
From the Rhenish provinces of Prussia and Bavaria,.....	196,502
From England, Wales, and Scotland,.....	429,950
From other places,.....	482
Total,.....tons	1,619,160

On the other hand, some small quantities of coal are exported from France, but these shipments have never reached 50,000 tons in one year. The quantities of this description of fuel, so important for all manufacturing processes, and so indispensable for some, that remained for use in the kingdom in the years already cited were, in round numbers, as follows:—

	Tons.		Tons.
In 1814,.....	800,000	In 1836,.....	3,517,000
1826,.....	1,800,000	1841,.....	4,980,000

The import duties on coal were diminished in 1834 from 15f. per ton to 3f., 6f. and 10f. per ton, depending upon the district into which it is brought by sea, while the duty on importation by land was reduced from 3f. to 1f. and 1f. 50c., such reductions being from 33 to 80 per cent upon the former rates. The quantities imported have since this reduction increased to the extent of 130 per cent; but concurrently with this increase, the internal production has been augmented to the extent of 65 per cent.

IRON.—The increase which has taken place in this branch of mining industry since 1836 is not nearly so great as the increase that has attended the production of mineral fuel; for which result we may in great part account by the fact that the iron trade in France has not been subjected to any diminution of fiscal protection, but continues to be hedged round by high, and as regards many qualities of the metal, prohibitory duties.

There were, in 1836, twelve districts in which the making of iron was prosecuted in France. Including both smelting works and works for making bar-iron, there were in those 12 districts 894 distinct establishments. In 1841 the number of distinct establishments was increased 1,023. There were smelting works in 59 different departments, and in 20 other departments the making of pig and bar iron from ore, elsewhere produced, was carried on; so that there were only 7 departments throughout France in which one of these two branches of the iron manufacture was not carried on: those 7 departments were—

1. Basses Alpes.
2. Haute Alpes.
3. Creuse.
4. Gers.
5. Haute Loire.
6. Losere.
7. Vendee.

In some departments the quantity of iron made was inconsiderable. In Cantal, the value of metal produced was only 1,280f., or 54*l.* 4s.; and each of the 13 other departments the value in the year did not reach 5,000*l.* One half of the value of all the iron made in France, in 1841, was produced in the following 9 departments, which are here placed in the order of their productiveness, viz. :—

1. Haute Marne.
2. Moselle.
3. Cote d'Or.
4. Loire.
5. Nievre.
6. Ardennes.
7. Cher.
8. Haute Saone.
9. Meuse.

Including with these nine departments which follow, placed also in the order of their productiveness, viz :—

1. Seine.
2. Doubs.
3. Gard.
4. Saone and Loire.
5. Arriege.
6. Vosges.
7. Nord.
8. Dordogne.
9. Indre.

it appears that 5-7 in value of all the iron made in France is produced in 18 departments, and the remaining 2-7 are distributed among 61 departments. The greatest value was produced in the department of Haute Marne, and amounted to 11,983,744f., or 479,349*l.*, which sum was divided among 86 establishments, placed in 41 different localities, some of which establishments are said to have been in operation so early as the beginning of the seventeenth century.

The value of iron and steel made in the various departments of France, which amounted, according to the returns of the government inspectors, to 4,975,424*l.* in 1836, is stated by those officers to have amounted in 1841 to 5,671,582*l.*, showing an increase in 5 years of barely 14 per cent. The value assigned to a given weight of the produce has, during the same time, been reduced at the rate of 8 1-8 per cent.

[The 12 districts in which iron is produced we need not particularize, nor need we give the details of their grouping.]

The prices so exorbitantly high when compared with the cost of production in England, must result, in great part, from the less efficient application of labor in France, and partly also from the higher cost of fuel in that country.. Measuring

the production of the two countries by the quantity of ore converted into pig iron, it appears that in Great Britain we make four tons for each ton made in France, while the number of persons employed is positively greater in France than in England, viz.—

In France,.....	47,830	In Great Britain,.....	42,418

giving as the average quantity of metals resulting from the labor of each person employed rather less than 8 tons in France and more than 35 tons in this country.

But to estimate to its full extent the greater efficiency of this branch of labor with us, we must bear in mind the greater number of persons employed in France for the production and transport of the fuel used at the iron-works, and which as we have seen, is 120 per cent greater than with us. If the cost of fuel at the iron works of Great Britain were as great as at the iron-works of France, it would, on a moderate computation, add 50*s.* per ton to the cost of the iron produced in England.

The value of the fuel consumed in the manufacture of iron in France, in 1836 and 1841 was—

	1836.	1841.
Wood charcoal,.....	£1,643,826	£1,706,712
Wood,.....	13,040	41,027
Coke,.....	96,972	177,237
Coal,.....	285,235	254,397
Peat,.....	694	301
Total,.....	£2,039,767	£2,179,664

being 41 per cent on the value of metal made in 1836, and 38½ per cent in 1841.

The average prices of the different kinds of fuel used in each of the above two years were—

	1836.	1841.
Wood charcoal,.....per ton	54s. 10d.	57s. 5d.
Coal,.....	18 5	14 7
Coke,.....	20 3	20 2
Wood,.....per stere	2 10	4 7

The continual increase of the cost of wood in France should tend, in conjunction with the continually declining cost of coals, to alter the existing system of manufacture; but under any circumstances the iron masters in that country must be placed at a disadvantage in competing with countries where the iron stone is found on the spot with the fuel, and the flux needful for its reduction.

We have seen that the cost of coal at the places of production in France was in 1836, per ton, 11*s.* 3½*d.*, and in 1841, per ton, 7*s.* 9¾*d.*; and it therefore appears that the expense of carriage from the collieries to the iron-works amounted on the average to 7*s.* 1½*d.* per ton, in 1836, and to 6*s.* 9¾*d.* in 1841, or more than the entire cost of the fuel used by English iron-masters.

The quantity of iron made in France in each year, from 1837 to 1841, appears from the official documents to have been as follows:—

Years.	Pig iron. *Tons.*	Mall. iron. *Tons.*	Years.	Pig iron. *Tons.*	Mall. iron. *Tons.*
1837,.....	321,679	224,618	1840,.....	347,773	237,379
1838,.....	347,776	224,195	1841,.....	377,142	263,747
1839,.....	350,172	231,761			

How inadequate must be the native production of this all-important metal, as here shown, to supply the wants of an extensive and populous country like France! If the rules of common sense were allowed to regulate the conduct of nations in matters of this nature, we should assuredly see that every possible inducement was held out to make good the deficiency by importations from foreign countries. The French government has, on the contrary, chosen to throw the most serious obstacle in the way of such importations; and under the pretext of stimulating the production at home, has loaded iron, of foreign make, with all but prohibitory

duties. Pig iron is subject to a rate equal to 3*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* per ton. Plates, bars, and rods, have to pay duties according to their dimensions, varying from 8*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* to 16*l.* 14*s.* 9*d.* per ton; and such articles as are not prohibited, to which a higher process of manufacture has been applied,—for example, wire,—are charged with a duty equal to 26*l.* 15*s.* 8*d.* per ton. At these rates the importations of iron into France are, as might be expected, small in quantity—not in any one year reaching 50,000 tons. The payment of high duties upon this small quantity is, however, a proof of the excessive prices which the consumers are forced to pay for all they use—prices from 100 to 250 per cent greater than are paid in England; and the slow progress made by the iron-masters of France, in providing for the wants of the country, should convince the government that the method they have adopted for stimulating production by means of high protective duties is but ill adapted to that end. It would most probably be found, upon inquiry, that the iron masters in that country are, in fact, but little interested in the question. By the prices they obtain for their iron, are they governed in the price which they can afford to pay for the wood-fuel which they use; or it may be more correct to say that the proprietors of woods in the iron-districts exact from the iron-masters the highest price which the market value of their iron will enable them to give; and thus the protecting duty on iron is a benefit only to a proportion of the proprietors of woods at the expense of the rest of the community.

The small quantity of iron imported from other countries into France is almost wholly in the first stage of manufacture. There are no means afforded in the official accounts of that country for ascertaining the proportionate quantities of various descriptions of metal imported; but as the duty levied upon all kinds of iron averaged 3*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.* per ton, it is evident that nearly the whole importation must have consisted of pig iron. It is probable that the small importation of other kinds which are made are confined, or nearly so, to the produce of this country, from the greater cheapness of our market; and we know that the great bulk of our shipments to France are pig iron. In 1842, out of 23,428 tons of all kinds of iron shipped by us to that country, 16,464 tons were pig iron; and in 1843 the proportion was still greater, having been 22,103 out of 29,266 tons, in both cases more than 70 per cent of the whole shipments.

A considerable relaxation of the French tariff, whereby the purchase of iron from other countries would be encouraged, would doubtless prove of benefit to those of us who are engaged in its production; while the benefit which France must derive, in various ways, from having so important a material in greater abundance, would by advancing the general wealth of the country, make France a more desirable customer: but, in the meantime, the course the French government pursues on this and other points of commercial policy, is by no means an unmixed evil to us, through the obstacles which are thereby raised by itself against the manufactures of that country in their competition with us in third markets.

The production of metals other than iron is so inconsiderable as to be a matter of no national importance in France; and it does not at all interest us, except as it points out that country as qualified to be a good customer for a portion of our superabundance. The following figures will show that, small as was the production of those metals in 1836, it is now even less:—

	1836.		1841.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Lead,.....tons	713	£16,209	638	£12,559
Silver,.....ounces	81,152	16,650	73,680	18,340
Antimony,.....tons	411	12,121	112	6,198
Copper,.....	102	7,877	100	11,147
Manganese,.....	1,667	6,106	4,978	5,899

These quantities are, of course, quite inadequate for the supply of the kingdom: and the importation for consumption into France in 1841 and 1842 was as follows:

	1841.	1842.
	Tons.	Tons.
Lead,.....	17,375	18,671
Copper,.....	9,770	10,814
Manganese,.....	1,341	1,295

The greater part of the lead was obtained from Spain; but England supplied of that metal 2,519 tons, in 1841, and 5,027 in 1842. The copper was principally imported from England, viz. 6,830 tons in 1841, and 8,300 tons in 1842, a great part being the produce of foreign ore smelted in England.

The declared value of British metals and of coals exported to France, in 1842, was as follows:—

Iron and steel,	£105,172
Hardware and cutlery,	90,035
Copper,	682,833
Lead,	91,687
Tin,	79,223
	£1,048,950
Coals,	173,278
Total,	£1,222,228

The quantities of iron and steel exported in that year, and in 1843, to France, were—

	1842.				1843.			
	Tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	Tons.	cwts.	qrs.	lbs.
Bars,	4,566	1	3	26	4,237	9	2	3
Bolt and rod,	174	17	0	0	295	2	2	0
Pigs,	16,464	0	0	0	22,103	0	0	0
Cast,	52	16	0	9	324	0	3	14
Wire,	39	0	1	8	39	0	0	22
Anchors, &c.,	289	8	0	4	444	17	0	23
Hoops,	506	14	2	0	443	11	1	16
Nails,	1	1	3	7	3	11	1	16
Other kinds,	834	13	2	9	1,153	7	2	3
Old, for re-manufacture,	172	0	0	0	341	0	0	0
Steel,	327	7	1	9	241	0	2	25
Total,	23,428	0	2	10	29,626	1	1	10

Art. VI.—THE PRECIOUS METALS IN RUSSIA.

GOLD MINING SYSTEM.

Russia is every year becoming more remarkable for the quantity of precious metals found in the eastern parts of the empire. Whether the day will ever arrive that it will supersede South America in these respects, the future must show; but there are already districts in Siberia in which a considerable degree of prosperity is manifested, by the busy commercial arrangements to which these mineral riches give rise. We will shortly sketch the outlines of the mining system adopted, from the information obtained by Mr. Cottrell, one of the most recent English travellers in Siberia.*

Most of the silver found in the Russian dominions is the emperor's private property, and is worked under his orders; but the gold is left to individual speculation. The arrangements in respect to gold are curious. Every free man in Russia, except persons in the employ of the government, is allowed to search the sands for gold, and to make or mar his fortunes according to his degree of success. As soon as any one has in-

* London Penny Magazine.

vestigated the district where he proposes to make the search, and has satisfied himself that appearances are favorable, (from finding perhaps a few grains of the precious metal,) he is obliged to announce the discovery to the nearest public functionary. The next step is to make application to the director of the nearest mining department belonging to the crown, for leave to begin his undertaking. An officer of the mines is upon this sent to measure out the ground, which is limited by law to five square versts, (a verst is about two-thirds of an English mile.) This spot is assigned to the person in question for as long a time as he chooses to occupy it; during which period he is practically the proprietor, and pays no rent to the government.

When all the arrangements are made, the speculator proceeds to erect huts for the workmen, and the machines for washing the sand which is supposed to contain gold. The only condition annexed is, that whatever gold he finds, must be immediately conveyed after the season of work is over (the beginning of October) to a government depot, at the town of Barnaoul, in Western Siberia, between Tobolsk and Irkoutsk. Here certain arrangements, which we shall describe farther on, are carried into effect, having for their object the assumption of a certain degree of government control over the final disposal of the gold. The workmen whom the speculator employs are chiefly persons who have been banished from Russia, and who receive from the police a stamped permission to reside on the spot for the term of one year; the permission being renewable at the end of that period. As the number of speculators is yearly on the increase, the price paid for labor has risen considerably within the last few years. The workman receives in hard money about eighteen roubles a month; (a rouble is worth about three shillings and three pence English;) in addition to which he is lodged, fed, and provided with tobacco and brandy, which are in fact luxuries to him. Some of the establishments are two or three hundred miles from any large town, and far from any high road, so that flour, meat, fish, and other necessaries must be conveyed on horseback; the actual cost of each laborer to the employer is, therefore, very high indeed, and could not be supported without the expectation of large profits.

The gold is not found in a mine, or combined with masses of rock; the sand of a particular district is collected, and by careful washing it is found to yield grains and small fragments of gold, which are separated from the sand. This auriferous sand is found in many parts of Siberia. For instance, the government of Omsk, which was not previously known for its mineral riches, yielded, in 1840, three hundred pounds of the precious metal. This was found on the steppes, or plains, which are inhabited rather by the Kirghis Tartars than by the Siberians and Russians. When a speculator thinks that any particular spot on those plains will yield gold, he hires it from the Kirghis at a fixed yearly rent; and whenever he discontinues his operations, the land reverts to the owner, who finds it in a more cultivable state from being cleared of the sand.

When a speculator has accumulated a sufficient quantity of gold from his sand-washings, or when the season for operation is over, the intervention of the government takes place in the following manner:—Each proprietor brings his gold in bags to Barnaoul; the dust, the small pieces, and sometimes masses weighing several pounds, being mixed up indiscriminately in the bags. These are weighed in the presence of the propri-

ctor and the chief of the establishment, and the quantity registered. Then the gold is melted down into ingots. It is put into large cast iron pots, previously brought to a red heat, and the pots with their contents are exposed to the heat of a furnace for forty minutes, by which the gold is brought to a liquid state. The liquid gold is poured into quadrangular iron recipients, or ingot moulds, which contain one pud or pood, if there is this quantity of gold belonging to one person. (A pud is equal to forty Russian pounds, or about thirty-six English avoirdupois pounds.) The ingot is weighed, to see what it has lost by passing through the fire; and then the gold is assayed, and its value fixed according to the carat. The average loss in melting is one and a half per cent; but it is occasionally as much as two or three per cent.

As in most despotic countries, where the officers of the government are responsible only to the emperor, a system of fees and presents is extensively carried on. The chief of the establishment at Barnaoul is said to enrich himself rapidly; for as it depends greatly on him to fix the value of the gold, the proprietor deems it to be his interest to keep on good terms with this official. Mr. Cottrell remarks—"We have seen the greatest court paid to individuals on whose report so much depends. It is said that there are persons much higher in authority than even he is, who have their share of these largesses; and if the system is so corrupt throughout, the revenue must lose considerably. It stands to reason that large sums cannot be expended every year in presents to governors and others, unless the gold is rated higher than its real worth; for otherwise there would be no object to gain, and it (the present to the chief) would be all dead loss. But where no one is allowed to get rid of his gold but through this channel, the temptation to fraud is great, and smuggling, even, goes on at Barnaoul. Gold is frequently bought, for something under the price the government allows, by other proprietors who have a quantity to send to head quarters. The smaller proprietors save by this means the expense of carriage and presents to the different officers, and so it comes to pretty much the same to them; perhaps, too, they never had legal permission to search for it. Before this can be done, application must be made to government for a grant of the land on which it is proposed to work, and this is attended with some little expense, which he escapes by disposing of the gold surreptitiously to those who have authority to search for it."

When the weighing, the melting, the assaying, and the registering are completed at Barnaoul, the government takes upon itself the expense of conveying the gold to St. Petersburg, whither it is sent three times in the year, and lodged in the royal mint. It is then coined, and the government receives out of it a tax of fifteen per cent for the cost of transport and carriage. The remainder is paid back to the proprietor, who generally finds that the presents which he has had to make, together with the tax, amount to about one-fourth of the registered value of the gold.

The enterprise of a gold speculator is a very uncertain one. If it is fairly successful, the expense of working is about one-fourth the full value of the gold; and this, added to the fourth just spoken of, leaves to him one-half clear profit. But it is not unfrequent to find a speculator wholly unsuccessful in his search, the sand not containing enough gold to pay the current expenses; in which case the individual is often brought at once to poverty. Mr. Cottrell gives details of a few examples to illustrate

the uncertain nature of the speculation, which we may give here in a condensed form.

About twelve years ago a Russian gentleman, M. Astaschef, retired from the service of the government, having been employed in the office of the finance minister. He wished to become a gold speculator; but as he could not do so while in the employ of government, he resigned his situation. Before the year 1829 very little gold had been found to the east of the Ural mountains; but in that year a merchant at Tomsk, named Popof, who was already possessed of a very considerable fortune, heard accidentally that a deserter, concealed in the woods a hundred miles east of the town, had found gold in the sands. Popof found means, first, to discover the spot, and then to obtain a grant of it from the government. At first he was not very successful, the produce being only about half a *zolotink* to a hundred puds of sand washed (one part of gold in four hundred thousand parts of sand.) He then changed the theatre of his speculation, and removed his establishments more than a thousand miles northward of Tobolsk; here he found gold, but not in great quantities; and as the soil there is constantly frozen, the expense was very great, independent of the difficulties attendant on the the scarcity of workmen, houses, and provisions. After having spent in all sixty-three thousand roubles, and searched in no fewer than three hundred different spots, he returned to the place first selected, and succeeded in obtaining a better return for his labors.

This merchant lent forty thousand roubles to M. Astaschef, to commence his speculations. A third person, who had spent two hundred thousand roubles fruitlessly in search of gold, at length found a small river on whose banks gold was mixed with the sands; and he and M. Astaschef agreed to divide it between them, each taking one bank. The speculation turned out well, the proportion of gold to sand being twice as much as that which Popof had procured. After this they formed a Company, together with several of the first personages at St. Petersburg; the management resting with Astaschef and Riazanof, while the others provided influence and additional capital. Many of these persons, however, were of the class to whom this kind of speculation was forbidden; and on a hint from the emperor they sold their shares in the Company to M. Astaschef.

In 1841 M. Astaschef was reputed a *millionaire*. The place where this fortunate spot was found is in the government of Yenisseik, near the rivers Touba and Kan. He was also one of the owners of another establishment on the frontiers of the two governments of Irkoutsk and Yenisseik. M. Astaschef told Mr. Cottrell that this second establishment yielded sixty-nine puds of gold in 1840. "The immense quantity of sand," says Mr. Cottrell, "which must have been washed to produce this golden result is something almost incredible; and what is more, there is no assignable limit to the riches of this individual, who is under fifty years of age; for there is every probability that not only the sands where they now are at work will not be exhausted for fifteen or twenty years, but that many other spots in the neighborhood may be equally full of treasure."

When the gold has been coined at St. Petersburg, and the fiscal deductions made, the proprietor has the option of receiving the remainder either in coin or in assignats. So critical is this gold-seeking occupation,

that even M. Astaschef, highly successful as he has ultimately been, narrowly escaped failure at the outset; for of the forty thousand roubles which he borrowed to commence operations, thirty-five thousand were expended before he met with any success.

The silver mining system of Russia we must notice in another number of this Magazine.

Art. VII.—MORALITY FOR MERCHANTS.

It affords us pleasure to call the attention of our readers to a treatise on Moral Philosophy, that exhibits the principles and enforces the obligations of morality in all their perfection and purity—a work that furnishes a true and authoritative standard of rectitude—by an appeal to which the moral character of human actions may be rightly estimated. Such, in our opinion, is the character of the present volume, the title of which we have placed at the foot of this page.* Jonathan Dymond, the author, was a member of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, and wrote these essays whilst engaged in active business as a linen draper, in London. He died quite young, in the spring of 1828, leaving in manuscript the three essays embraced in the present volume.

Rejecting what he considered the false grounds of duty, and erroneous principles of action, which are proposed in the most prominent and most generally received theories of moral obligation, he proceeds to erect a system of morality upon the only true and legitimate basis—the WILL OF GOD. He makes, therefore, the authority of the Deity the sole ground of duty, and His communicated will the only ultimate standard of right and wrong; and assumes that, "wheresoever this will is made known, human duty is determined; and that neither the conclusions of philosophers, nor advantages, nor dangers, nor pleasures, nor sufferings, ought to have any opposing influence in regulating our conduct."

The attempt to establish a system of uncompromising morality must necessarily bring the writer into direct collision with the advocates of the utilitarian scheme, particularly with the celebrated Dr. Paley; and, accordingly, it will be found that he frequently enters the lists with this great champion of expediency. In thus attempting to controvert a system of moral philosophy, dubious, fluctuating, and inconsistent with itself, into a definite and harmonious code of ethics, the author undertook a task for which, by the original structure of his mind, and his prevailing habit of reflection, he was, perhaps, peculiarly fitted. He had sought for himself, and he endeavors to convey to others, clear perceptions of the true and the right; and, in maintaining what he regarded as truth and rectitude, he shows everywhere an unshackled independence of mind, and a fearless, unflinching spirit. The work is evidently the result of a careful study of the writings of moralists, of much thought, of an intimate acquaintance with the spirit and genius of the Christian religion, and an extensive examination of human life in those spheres of action which are seldom apt to attract the notice of the meditative philosopher.

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* Essays on the Principles of Morality, and on Private and Political Rights and Obligations of Mankind. By Jonathan Dymond, author of "An Inquiry into the accordance of War with the Principles of Christianity." New York, Collins, Brother & Co.

The author, in proceeding to illustrate his principles, evidently sought, as far as might be, to simplify the subject, to disencumber it of abstruse and metaphysical appendages, and rejecting subtleties and needless distinctions, to exhibit a standard of morality that should be plain, perspicuous, and practicable.

We have placed "Morality for Merchants" at the head of this paper, not that the work especially treats of the bearings of moral philosophy on commercial transactions; although it refers to a course of moral conduct applicable to the merchant, as well as all men in the varied relations of life; but rather for the purpose of introducing to our mercantile readers such portions of the treatise as concern more immediately the man of business. On the subject of Insolvency the work discourses after this manner:—

MERCANTILE INSOLVENCY.

Why is a man obliged to pay his debts? It is to be hoped that the morality of of a few persons is lax enough to reply—Because the law compels him. But why, then, is he obliged to pay them? Because the Moral Law requires it. That this is the primary ground of the obligation, is evident; otherwise the payment of any debt which a vicious or corrupt legislature resolved to cancel, would cease to be obligatory on the debtor. The Virginian statute, which we noticed in the last essay, would have been a sufficient justification to the planters to defraud their creditors.

A man becomes insolvent and is made a bankrupt: he pays his creditors ten shillings instead of twenty, and obtains his certificate. The law, therefore, discharges him from the obligation to pay more. The bankrupt receives a large legacy, or he engages in business and acquires property. Being then able to pay the remainder of his debts, does the legal discharge exempt him from the obligation to pay them? No: and for this reason, that the legal discharge is not a moral discharge; that as the duty to pay at all was not founded primarily on the law, the law cannot warrant him in withholding a part.

It is however said, that the creditors have relinquished their right to the remainder by signing the certificate. But why did they except half their demands instead of the whole? Because they were obliged to do it; they could get no more. As to granting the certificate, they do it because to withhold it would be only an act of gratuitous unkindness. It would be preposterous to say that creditors relinquish their claims voluntarily; for no one would give up his claim to twenty shillings on the receipt of ten, if he could get the other ten by refusing. It might as reasonably be said that a man parts with a limb voluntarily, because, having incurably lacerated it, he submits to an amputation. It is to be remembered, too, that the necessary relinquishment of half of the demand is occasioned by the debtor himself; and it seems very manifest that when a man, by his own act, deprives another of his property, he cannot allege the consequences of that act as a justification of withholding it after restoration is in his power.

The mode in which an insolvent man obtains a discharge, does not appear to effect his subsequent duties. Compositions, and bankruptcies, and discharges by an insolvent act are in this respect alike. The acceptance of a part instead of the whole is not voluntary in either case; and neither case exempts the debtor from the obligation to pay in full if he can.

If it should be urged that when a person entrusts property to another, he knowingly undertakes the risk of that other's insolvency, and that, if the contingent loss happens, he has no claims to justice on the other, the answer is this; that whatever may be thought of these claims, they are not the grounds upon which the debtor is obliged to pay. The debtor always engages to pay, and the engagement is enforced by morality; the engagement therefore is binding, whatever risk another man may incur by relying upon it. The causes which have occasioned a person's insolvency, although they greatly affect his character, do not affect his obligations: the duty to repay when he has the power, is the same whether

the insolvency were occasioned by his fault or his misfortune. In all cases, the reasoning that applies to the debt, applies also to the interest that accrues upon it; although with respect to the acceptance of both, and especially of interest, a creditor should exercise a considerate discretion. A man who has failed of paying his debts ought always to live with frugality, and carefully to economize such money as he gains. He should reflect that he is a trustee for his creditors, and all the needless money which he expends is not his but theirs.

The amount of property which the trading part of a commercial nation loses by insolvency, is great enough to constitute a considerable national evil. The fraud too, that is practised under cover of insolvency, is doubtless the most extensive of all species of private robbery. The profligacy of some of these cases is well known to be extreme. He who is a bankrupt to-day, riots in the luxuries of affluence to-morrow; bows to the creditors whose money he is spending, and exults in the success and impunity of his wickedness. Of such conduct we should not speak or think but with detestation. We should no more sit at table, or take the hand of such a man, than if we knew he had got his money last night on the highway. There is a wickedness in some bankruptcies to which the guilt of ordinary robbers approaches but a distance. Happy, if such wickedness could not be practised with legal impunity! Happy if public opinion supplied the difficiency of the law and held the iniquity in rightful abhorrence!

Perhaps nothing would tend so efficaciously to diminish the general evils of insolvency, as a sound state of public opinion respecting the obligation to pay our debts. The insolvent who, with the means of paying, retains the money in his own pocket, is, and he should be regarded as being, a dishonest man. If public opinion held such conduct to be of the same character as theft, probably a more powerful motive to avoid insolvency would be established than any which now exists. Who would not anxiously (and therefore, in almost all cases, successfully) struggle against insolvency, when he knew that it would be followed, if not by permanent poverty, by permanent disgrace? If it should be said that to act upon such a system would overwhelm an insolvent's energies, keep him in perpetual inactivity, and deprive his family of the benefit of his exertions—I answer, that the evil, supposing it to impend, would be much less extensive than may be imagined. The calamity being foreseen, would prevent men from becoming insolvent; and it is certain that the majority might have avoided insolvency by sufficient care. Besides, if a man's principles are such that he would rather sink into inactivity than exert himself in order to be just, it is not necessary to mould public opinion to his character. The question too is not whether some men would not prefer indolence to the calls of justice, but whether the public should judge accurately respecting what those calls are. The state, and especially a family, might lose occasionally by this reform of opinion—and so they do by sending a man to New South Wales; but who would think this a good reason for setting criminals at large? And after all, much more would be gained by preventing insolvency, than lost by the ill consequences upon the few who failed to pay their debts.

It is cause of satisfaction that, respecting this rectified state of opinion, and respecting integrity of private virtue, some examples are offered. There is one community of Christians which holds its members obliged to pay their debts whenever they have the ability, without regard to the legal discharge.* By this means, there is thrown over the character of every bankrupt who possesses property, a shade which nothing but payment can dispel. The effect, (in conjunction

* "Where any have injured others in their property, the greatest frugality should be observed by themselves and their families; and although they may have a legal discharge from their creditors, both equity and our Christian profession demand, that none, when they have it in their power, should rest satisfied until a just restitution be made to those who have suffered by them. And it is the judgment of this meeting, that monthly and other meetings ought not to receive collections or bequests for the use of the poor, or any other services of the society, of persons who have fallen short in the payment of their just debts, though legally discharged by their creditors: for until such persons have paid the deficiency, their possessions cannot in equity be considered as their own."—*Official documents of the yearly meeting of the Society of Friends.*

we may hope with private integrity of principle) is good—good, both in instituting a new motive to avoid insolvency, and in inducing some of those who do become insolvent, subsequently to pay all their debts.

Of this latter effect many honorable instances might be given: two of which having fallen under my observation, I would briefly mention. A man had become insolvent, I believe in early life; his creditors divided his property amongst them, and gave him a legal discharge. He appears to have formed the resolution to pay the remainder, if his own exertions should enable him to do it. He procured employment, by which however he never gained more than twenty shillings a week; and worked industriously and lived frugally for eighteen years. At the expiration of this time he found he had accumulated enough to pay the remainder, and he sent the money to his creditors. Such a man, I think, might hope to derive, during the remainder of his life, greater satisfaction from the conciousness of integrity, than he would have derived from expending the money on himself. It should be told that many of his creditors, when they heard the circumstances, declined to receive the money, or voluntarily presented it to him again. One of these was my neighbor; he had been but little accustomed to exemplary virtue, and the proffered money astonished him; he talked in loud commendation of what to him was unheard-of integrity; signed a receipt for the amount, and sent it back as a present to the debtor. The other instance may furnish hints of a useful kind. It was the case of a female who had endeavored to support herself by the profits of a shop. She however became insolvent, paid some dividend, and received a discharge. She again entered into business, and in the course of years had accumulated enough to pay the remainder of her debts. But the infirmities of age were now coming on, and the annual income from her savings was just sufficient for the wants of her declining years. Being thus at present unable to discharge her obligations without subjecting herself to the necessity of obtaining relief from others; she executed a will, directing that at her death the creditors should be paid the remainder of their demands: and when she died they were paid accordingly.

MINORS' DEBTS.

A young man under twenty-one years of age purchases articles of a tradesman, of which some are necessary and some are not. Payment for unnecessary articles cannot be enforced by the English law—the reason with the legislature being this, that thoughtless youths might be practised upon by designing persons, and induced to make needless and extravagant purchases. But is the youth who purchases unnecessary articles with the promise to pay when he becomes of age, exempted from the obligation? Now it is to be remembered, generally, that this obligation is not founded upon the law of the land, and therefore that law cannot dispense with it. But if the tradesman has actually taken advantage of the inexperience of a youth, to cajole him into debts of which he was not conscious of the amount or the impropriety, it does not appear that he is obliged to pay them; and for this reason, that he did not, in any proper sense of the term, come under an obligation to pay them. In other cases, the obligation remains. The circumstance that the law will not assist the creditor to recover the money, does not dispense with it. It is fit, no doubt, that these dishonorable tradesmen should be punished, though the mode of punishing them is exceptionable indeed. It operates as a powerful temptation to fraud in young men, and it is a bad system to discourage dishonesty in one person by tempting the probity of another; the youth, too, is of all persons the last who should profit by the punishment of the trader. He is reprehensible himself: young men who contract such debts are seldom so young or so ignorant as not to know that they are doing wrong.

A WIFE'S DEBTS.

A man's wife "runs him into debt" by extravagant purchases which he is alike unable to prevent or to afford. Many persons sell goods to such a woman, who are conscious of her habits and of the husband's situation, yet continue to supply her extravagance, because they know the law will enable them to enforce payment from the husband. These persons act legally, but they are legally wicked.

Do they act as they would desire others to act towards them? Would one of these men wish another tradesman so to supply his own wife if she was notoriously a spendthrift? If not, morality condemns his conduct: and the laws, in effect, condemn it too; for the legislature would not have made husbands responsible for their wives' debts any more than for their children's, but for the presumption that the wife generally buys what the husband approves. Debts of unprincipled extravagance, are not debts which the law intended to provide that the husband should pay. If all women contracted such debts, the legislature would instantly alter the law. If the legislature could have made the distinction, perhaps it would have made it; since it did not or could not, the deficiency must be supplied by private integrity.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

The law of England provides, that if the possessor of a Bill of Exchange fails to demand payment on the day on which it becomes due, he takes the responsibility, in case of its eventual non-payment, from the previous indorsers, and incurs it himself. This as a general rule may be just. A party may be able to pay to-day, and unable a week hence; and if, in such a case, a loss arises by one man's negligence, it were manifestly unreasonable that it should be sustained by others. But if the acceptor becomes unable to pay a week or a month before the bill is due, the previous endorsers cannot in justice throw the loss upon the last possessor, even though he fails to present it on the appointed day. For why did the law make its provision? In order to secure persons from the loss of their property by the negligence of others over whom they had no control. But, in the supposed case, the loss is not occasioned by any such cause, and therefore the spirit of the law does not apply to it. You are insisting upon its literal, in opposition to its just interpretation. Whether the bill was presented on the right day or the wrong, makes no difference to the previous endorsers, and for such a case the law was not made.

A similar rule of virtue applies to the case of giving notice of a refusal to except or to pay. If, in consequence of the want of this notice, the party is subject to loss, he may avail himself of the legal exemption from the last possessor's claim. If the want of notice made no difference in his situation, he may not.

SHIPMENTS.

The same principles apply to a circumstance which not unfrequently occurs amongst men of business, and in which integrity is, I think, very commonly sacrificed to interest. A tradesman in Falmouth is in the habit of purchasing goods of merchants in London, by whom the goods are forwarded in vessels to Falmouth. Now it is a rule of law founded upon established customs, that goods when shipped are at the risk of the buyer. The law, however, requires that an account of the shipment shall be sent to the buyer by post, in order that, if he thinks proper, he may insure his goods: and in order to effect this object, the law directs, that if the account be not sent, and the vessel is wrecked, it will not enforce payment from the buyer. All this as a general rule is just. But in the actual transactions of business, goods are very frequently sent by sea by an express or tacit agreement between the parties without notice by the post. The Falmouth tradesman then is in the habit of thus conducting the matter for a series of years. He habitually orders his goods to be sent by ship, and the merchant, as habitually, with the buyer's knowledge, sends the invoice with them. Of course the buyer is not in the habit of insuring. At length a vessel is wrecked, and a package is lost. When the merchant applies for payment, the tradesman says—"No; you sent no invoice by post: I shall not pay you, and I know you cannot compel me by law." Now this conduct I think is condemned by morality. The man in Falmouth does not suffer any loss in consequence of the want of notice. He would not have insured if he had received it; and therefore the intention of the legislature in withholding its assistance from the merchant, was not to provide for such a case. Thus to take advantage of the law without regard to its intentions is unjust. Besides, the custom of sending the invoice with the goods rather than by post, is for the advantage of the buyer only:—it saves him a shilling in postage. The

understanding amongst men of business that the risks of loss at sea impends on buyers is so complete, that they habitually take that risk into account in the profits which they demand on their goods: sellers do not; and this again indicates the injustice of throwing the loss upon the seller when an accident happens at sea. Yet tradesmen, I believe, rarely practice any other justice than that which the law will enforce; as if not to be compelled by law were to be exempt from all moral obligation. It is hardly necessary to observe, that if the man in Falmouth was actually prevented from insuring by the want of an invoice by post, he has a claim of justice as well as of law upon the merchant in London.

INSURANCE.

It is very possible for a man to act dishonestly every day and yet never to defraud another of a shilling. A merchant who conducts his business partly or wholly with borrowed capital, is not honest if he endangers the loss of an amount of property which, if lost, would disable him from paying his debts. He who possesses a thousand pounds of his own and borrows a thousand of some one else, cannot virtuously speculate so extensively as that, if his prospects should be disappointed, he would lose twelve hundred. The speculation is dishonest whether it succeeds or not: it is risking other men's property without their consent. Under similar circumstances it is unjust not to insure. Perhaps the majority of uninsured traders, if their houses and goods were burnt, would be unable to pay their creditors. The injustice consists not in the actual loss which may be inflicted, (for whether a fire happens or not, the injustice is the same,) but in endangering the infliction of the loss. There are but two ways in which, under such circumstances, the claims of rectitude can be satisfied—one is by not endangering the property, and the other by telling its actual owner that it will be endangered, and leaving him to incur the risk or not as he pleases.

"Those who hold the property of others are not warranted on the principles of justice, in neglecting to inform themselves from time to time, of the real situation of their affairs." This enforces the doctrines which we have delivered. It asserts that injustice attaches to not investigating; and this injustice is often real whether creditors are injured or not.

Art. VIII—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JOSEPH HEWES.

The parents of Joseph Hewes were members of the Society of Friends, and at the time of their marriage resided in the colony of Connecticut, in one of the settlements the farthest removed from the coast of the Atlantic. In this situation they were obliged to bear the double persecution arising from the often excited hostility of the Indians, who roved through the forests in their vicinity, and the prejudice still remaining among the puritans of New England, against all that wore the quaker habiliments or professed the quaker doctrines.

For persons of this persuasion, and indeed for all that were ambitious of a quiet and secure life, a residence in either Connecticut or Massachusetts, was at that period far from desirable.

The government of Massachusetts had, in order to "promote enterprise and encourage volunteers," raised the premium on Indian scalps and prisoners to one hundred pounds for each; and in the temper of mind which is sufficiently indicated by such an enactment, a bitter and murderous warfare was waged against the natives of the forest, attended with circumstances often discreditable to the humanity of the white man, and with instances of reprisals and retaliation on the part of the Indian, involving the most shocking barbarities.

The province of Connecticut had refused to unite in any measures of war that were not defensive; but the Indians were not always careful to observe the boundary line between the two colonies, or to discriminate between people so closely resembling each other in manner and appearance. The inoffensive and industrious farmers of Connecticut were, therefore, exposed to suffer the vengeance intended to be dealt upon the scalping parties of Massachusetts, and many of them moved off from the lands they had prepared for cultivation, to seek a more secure asylum in a southern colony.

Among these emigrants were Aaron and Providence Hewes, who made their escape from the scene of savage warfare not without difficulty and imminent personal risk; so near, indeed, were they to the scene of danger, that, in crossing the Housatonic river, they were almost overtaken by the Indians, and were within the actual range of their bullets, one of which wounded Providence in the neck. They took up their abode near Kingston, in New Jersey, where they found a peaceful and secure dwelling-place, and where they remained to the end of their lives.

Their son Joseph was born in the year 1730; and, after enjoying the advantages of education common at that period, in the immediate neighborhood of Princeton college, he went to Philadelphia to acquire a knowledge of commercial business. He entered, as soon as his term of apprenticeship in a counting house was closed, into the bustle and activity of trade; and, availing himself of the fortunate situation of the colonies in respect to commerce, and the great opportunities then offered by the British flag, particularly when used to protect American ships, he was soon one of the large number of thriving colonial merchants, whose very prosperity became a lure to Great Britain, and induced her to look to this country for a revenue.

Mr. Hewes did not remove to North Carolina until he was thirty years of age, previous to which time he had been residing at New York and Philadelphia alternately, with occasional and frequent visits to his friends in New Jersey. Having made choice of Edenton for his future home, he soon became distinguished in the community of that city for his successful career as a merchant, his liberal hospitalities, great probity and honor, and his agreeable social qualities. Although nearly a stranger in the state, he was very shortly invited to take a seat in the colonial legislature of North Carolina—an office to which he was repeatedly chosen, and which he always filled with advantage to the people of that colony, and with credit to himself.

When the British ministry had proceeded so far as to close the port of Boston, (thus, by a most decided and severe act, evincing their fixed determination to proceed in their plan of taxing the colonies,) and the committees of correspondence, instituted first at Boston and afterwards elsewhere, had proposed a meeting of deputies to a general Congress to be held at Philadelphia, Mr. Hewes was one of three citizens selected by North Carolina to represent her in that assembly. On the 4th of September, in the year 1774, this first Congress began their session; and on the 14th of the same month, Mr. Hewes arrived and took his seat.

Immediately after the assembling of Congress, two important committees had been appointed, to whom, in fact, nearly all the business of the Congress was entrusted. The one was to "state the rights of the colonies in general, the several instances in which those rights are violated

or infringed, and the means most proper to be pursued for obtaining a restoration of them." The other was to "examine and report the several statutes which affect the trade and manufacture of the colonies." To the first of these committees Mr. Hewes was added very soon after he took his seat, and contributed his assistance to the preparation of their report, which was adopted on the 14th of October.

The non-importation agreement, recommended by this report and determined to be adopted, was a very remarkable event in the annals of the revolution. It could only have been thought of by men having the most perfect confidence in the integrity and patriotism of the people, without whose universal and strict resolution to maintain it, such a measure would be palpably unavailing. A system of privation not enforced by any law, nor guarded with any penal sanctions, but resting entirely on the deep and general sense of wrongs inflicted, and of the necessity of a united effort to obtain redress—it evinced a steady resolution, a sober patriotism, and a generous sacrifice of selfish views to the common good, unequalled in the history of the world.

If any class of people more than the rest were entitled to particular praise for the patriotic ardor which induced them to join in this combination, it was unquestionably the mercantile part of the community, who sacrificed not only many of the comforts and enjoyments of life, but gave up also the very means of their subsistence, in relinquishing the importing trade to which they had been accustomed to devote their capital and labor. Mr. Hewes was a merchant, and a successful one. He had been for more then twenty years engaged in the sale of merchandise imported chiefly from England and the British dependencies; but he did not hesitate on this occasion to assist in the preparation of the plan, to vote for it, and to affix his own name to the compact. The association recited, in the first place, the injuries inflicted on the colonies by the various acts of the British government, against which the report of the committee had been directed, and then declares that, "to obtain redress for these grievances, a non-importation, non-consumption, and non-exportation agreement, faithfully adhered to, would prove the most speedy, effectual, and peaceable measure."

Such an agreement was then concluded, to the observance of which, the associates were bound by the sacred ties of virtue, honor, and love of country. It was recommended to the provincial conventions, and to the committees in the respective colonies, "to establish such farther regulations as they may think proper, for carrying into execution this association." Congress, after adopting an address to the people of Great Britain, an address to the king, and one to the people of Canada, all distinguished by uncommon elegance and force of diction, and having resolved that it was expedient to meet again in May of the succeeding year, adjourned on the twenty-sixth of October, and Mr. Hewes returned to his home in North Carolina.

In the ensuing spring, a convention of that colony was held at Newbern, when Mr. Hewes was elected a member of the Continental Congress about to assemble; the general assembly approved of this choice, and at the same time resolved to adhere strictly to the non-importation agreement, and to use what influence they possessed to induce the same observance in every individual in the province. Mr. Hewes attended accordingly at Philadelphia when the new Congress assembled in May, and continued

with them until their adjournment, the last day of July. The battle of Lexington had occurred a few weeks before the meeting of Congress, and the first business that came before them was the examination of the depositions of witnessess, which, at that period, or at least on that occasion, supplied the place of military reports, of the killed, wounded, and missing, as well as of the movements of the hostile forces. The first resolution of the Congress was, however, notwithstanding the excitement naturally caused by the actual commencement of war, to present another loyal and dutiful address to the king; at the same time, now first glancing at the possibility of a separation, in a recommendation to the Provincial Congress of New York to prepare vigorously for defence, "as it is very uncertain whether the earnest endeavors of the Congress to accommodate the unhappy differences between Great Britain and the colonies by conciliatory measures will be successful."

The battle of Bunker's Hill, and the appointment of a commander-in-chief of the army, with a long list of major-generals and brigadiers, in the succeeding month, placed the true nature of the contest more distinctly in the view of the people of America, and of the world. The Society of Friends, of which Mr. Hewes' parents had been members, as well as himself in his youth, were now straining every nerve in an effort to prevent the revolutionary, republican, and warlike doctrines of the times, from gaining a reception among the quakers. The society was numerous, wealthy, and respectable, and their opposition was powerful and active. In the beginning of the year 1775 they had held a general convention of the "people called quakers" residing in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and had put forth a "testimony," denouncing the Congress and all its proceedings. This, however, did not have any effect on Mr. Hewes, or if any, not the effect intended. He broke entirely from communion with the quakers, and became not only a promoter of war, but a man of gaiety and worldly habits—even to the extent of being a frequent visiter of the ladies, and partaking, even with glee and animation, of the pleasures of the dance, in which he is said at all times of his life, after escaping from the restraints of his quaker education, to have taken much delight.

In the recess of Congress, between July and September, he did not return to North Carolina, but made a visit to his friends in New Jersey, and was at hand when the next session was begun. He was placed on the committee of claims, and that charged with the fitting out of the armed vessels ordered to be built or equipped for Congress—the germ of the United States' navy; and thus he became, in effect, and in the nature of his duties and responsibilities, the first secretary of the navy. In the commencement of the next year, Mr. Hewes, having attained great respect in Congress by his excellent qualities and habits of close attention to business, was chosen a member of the secret committee, a post of extreme difficulty, and great responsibility, and requiring the closest application.

It was within the recollection of some of the long surviving patriots of this period, that Mr. Hewes was remarkable for a devotedness to the business of this committee, as complete as ever the most industrious merchant was known to give to his counting house. After this time he was generally appointed on the most important committees, such as that to concert with General Washington a plan of operations for the ensuing campaign; the one entrusted with the difficult task of digesting a plan of

confederation; another charged with the superintendence of the treasury; one raised for the purpose of inquiring into the causes of the miscarriages in Canada, and several others of less moment. Mr. Hewes was, during this period, a most active man of business; the disbursements of the naval committee were under his especial charge, and eight armed vessels were fitted out with the funds placed at his disposal. He was attentive also to the condition of North Carolina, then direfully distracted with civil wars, and menaced also by the common enemy; gunpowder and other munitions of war were sent by him at his own expense, but re-imbursed afterwards by Congress, to supply the exigencies of the republican troops in that part of the country. He had the satisfaction of being present during all the debate on the question of declaring independence, and of voting in favor of the instant adoption of that imperishable manifesto which has made the 4th of July a jubilee for this nation. In voting on this side he acted in accordance with a resolution passed by the North Carolina convention, on the 22nd of April preceding, empowering the delegates from that colony to "concur with those of the other colonies in declaring independency."

North Carolina had thus the merit of being the first one of the colonies which openly declared in favor of throwing off all connection with Great Britain, a spirited and manly determination which entitles the leading men of that state to distinguished praise. Mr. Hewes, by his indefatigable exertions in the equipment of the naval armament, as well as by the fearless constancy with which he had advocated independence, had acquired, to a very great degree, the esteem and respect of the people whom he represented. In the beginning of the year 1777, therefore, he was again chosen a delegate, with such powers as to make whatever he and his colleagus might do in Congress obligatory on every inhabitant of the state.

Mr. Hewes, however, did not except this appointment. He left to his colleagues the tour of duty in Congress, and devoted himself to his private affairs, and to the benefit of his state at home, during the greater part of that year and the whole of the next, nor did he resume his seat until the month of July, 1779. He was at this time in very ill health, his constitution had been totally broken down, and he was able to give little more assistance to the public councils of the nation. His end was rapidly approaching; the last vote given by him in Congress was on the 29th of October, after which he was wholly confined to his chamber until the 10th of November, when he expired, in the fiftieth year of his age.

On the day of his death, Congress being informed of the event, and of the intention of his friends to inter his remains on the following day, resolved that they would attend the funeral with a crape round the left arm, and continue in mourning for the space of one month, that a committee should be appointed to superintend the ceremony, the Rev. Mr. White, their chaplain, should officiate on the occasion, and that invitations should be sent to the general assembly, and the president and supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, the minister plenipotentiary of France, and other persons of distinction.

The funeral ceremonies were accordingly conducted with all the pomp and display which the simple manners and sobriety of temper then prevalent in Philadelphia would admit. A large concourse of people, including all the distinguished personages, civil and military, witnessed the inter-

ment of his remains in the burial ground of Christ Church, and the outward show of respect to his memory was not in this instance forced or insincere.

Mr. Hewes possessed a prepossessing figure and countenance, with great amenity of manners, and an unblemished reputation for probity and honor. He left a considerable fortune, but no children to inherit it.

His death may be called untimely, when we reflect on the brighter prospects that soon after opened on the country to whose happiness he devoted himself with so much zeal, prospects in which he would have found a cause of infinite gratitude and joy; but in other respects his end was more seasonable than that of some of his compatriots who lived to endure old age, infirmity and want; he was taken in the meridian of his usefulness, but not before he had performed enough of service to this nation to entitle him to her enduring and greatful recollection.

Art. IX—COMMERCIAL CO-PARTNERSHIPS.

We perfectly coincide with the writer of the following communication, in the correctness of his views in relation to the custom of retaining the names of a firm after the withdrawal of one or more of the parties. The evil, as we were aware, does not exist in New York, and it would seem that we are in a measure indebted to the writer, an experienced and highly respectable merchant of Boston, for the act on this subject, passed in the legislature of New York, in 1833.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

I have entertained the hope that some one of the readers, or contributors to the Merchants' Magazine, would have, by this time, noticed the increasing disposition of the mercantile class of our citizens, to follow the custom of European nations, in continuing old firms, however materially they may have been changed in persons and property. The subject is properly embraced by the scope and design of the work. In Europe, there are houses, or firms, which have been in existence a century or more, without the least alteration in sign or signature, although the persons and property have withdrawn several times during that period. When a house had been successful in business, and attained considerable eminence, its successors purchased the privilege of using its name, without involving the venders in any future liability.

I know not if there be just such a case in the United States, but the occurrence is often, that "& Co." is attached to a concern when it represents no person; and sometimes a firm is advertised as dissolved, by the withdrawal of one partner, the remaining partners continuing business under the same firm. In such a case, it may be asked, why should there not be a law to hold him liable as a partner, while he silently permits his name to be thus used? I have in view a firm, in Boston, consisting originally of two persons, and which, for convenience, I denominate A & B, instead of using the initials of their names, which has been in existence over twenty years, yet the latter has been dead nearly all this time, and at his decease, his property was withdrawn. Suppose this firm should become insolvent, should there not be a law, holding the executor (as the case was) responsible, either in his official or individual capacity? I have in view also a gentleman, who has left his name in a firm which is very well situated without him. He is rich, charitable, and philanthrophic—such a person as may be considered above reproach; yet, in this particular, he seems not to be aware of any immorality, either because he never thought of the subject, or because it was not contrary to law.

In all such cases, everything is supposed, or feignedly supposed, to be correct, because the formation or dissolution of the partnership has been published a short time in one or two journals of the day, having a limited circulation. A consequence of this might be, that a house, in a distant part of the United States, or in a foreign country, knowing no other than the original firm, might consign its property to an insolvent house, and subject itself to great loss. When such a custom prevails, it subjects the commercial world to be constantly watchful, lest signs and signatures speak not the truth. If, after having seen an advertisement, it could be presumed to be always remembered, it would be some palliation; and even if it were required in the United States, to have all dissolutions and formations of partnerships, and insolvencies, published in one paper, as it is in England, in the London City Gazette, this might afford another palliation. Whatever may be said in favor of such deceptive co-partnerships, the immorality of the thing cannot be denied. It is nothing less than an attempt to obtain advantages by false appearances, and to acquire patronage and importance not then possessed.

The impropriety, the inconvenience, the distrust, which this disguise creates, were made strikingly apparent in Boston, about the year 1830. At that time, it is particularly remembered, that a great amount of foreign exchange was sold, and a large number of notes and inland bills discounted there for New York houses. The name of an old and very substantial house gave currency to a good proportion of it, under a belief that the firm was continued as it formerly had been. Suddenly, it was ascertained that the senior partner, on whom reliance was chiefly placed, had retired with most of the property, leaving his two sons to continue business under the same firm, and was not holden for one cent of the amount. After having discounted more than $1,000,000 of this kind of paper, at the moment of this discovery, the banks in State-street held as much as $150,000 of it. It is proper to observe, however, that it was business paper, and all of it duly paid.

In this way, about the same time, I was myself incommoded. Being about purchasing a foreign bill of exchange, one was offered me, endorsed by C, D & Co., prominent for the extent of their business, their long standing and good credit, with a reputation unquestioned as Mr. Astor. On seeing their names, I was on the point of engaging it; but suddenly I bethought myself, that I ought to have fresh information of their standing. On inquiry, I found that C had retired with his property, and my informant was quite sure that D had, also, leaving the Co. to continue business under the old firm.

Conceiving that there ought to be some legislative enactment to put a stop to this licentious and degrading custom of forming deceptive co-partnerships, early in 1833, the writer of this article, addressed a senator of the state of New York,* (since then elevated to the highest office in the state,) giving an account of what had occurred in Boston. The legislature of New York was then in session; and by his agency, I presume, it became so convinced of the necessity of some action on the subject, that, within six weeks, the following short but effective enactment was recorded:—

"The people of the state of New York, represented in the senate and assembly, do enact as follows:—

"1st. No person shall hereafter transact business in the name of a partner not interested in his firm; and where the designation 'and Company,' or, '& Co.,' is used, it shall represent an actual partner or partners.

"2nd. Any person offending against the provisions of this act, shall, upon conviction thereof, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor; and be punished by a fine, not exceeding $1,000.

"3d. This act shall be published by the secretary of state immediately, and shall not take effect until six months after its passage."

This was a typhoon among the signs and firms, and many a Co. was erased from sign-boards. The promptitude with which the subject was taken up, redounded much to the honor and sound judgment of the legislature of New

* Ex-Governor William H. Seward.

York. This is probably the first legislative act on the subject in the United States, and it well became the state of New York, the first in commercial importance, to take the lead in this matter. If Massachusetts be the next on the commercial list, she ought to be the next to follow the example. She has not, although her attention has been called to it.

In the session of the legislature of Massachusetts, of 1835, a representative of the city of Boston, now president of an Insurance Company, in the city of New York, having been a merchant, and knowing well what belongs to the dignity and respectability of that class of citizens, and peceiving, perhaps, that some had become erratic, submitted an order, for the committee on mercantile affairs and insurance, to inquire into the expediency of providing, by law, that the partnership names of all mercantile co-partnerships, shall contain the names of all the partners, and no others.

It was gratifying to see this gentleman make this advance, but painful to find that nothing resulted. It is, nevertheless, to be hoped that some one of her numerous representatives, from her commercial towns, will resuscitate the subject; and, in time, every state in the Union, give evidence that they will not countenance such immoral examples, even if they be ancient, and have originated in foreign countries.

After closing this article, as I thought, my eyes fell on the dissolution and reformation of two co-partnerships, in two morning newspapers, of Boston, Feb. 4, 1845. C & D advertise that they will do business under the firm of C, D & Co.; C & M say they will do business under the firm of C, M & Co. Thus, Co. represents nobody; and, each of the firms, or each one in each firm, would, by the law of New York state, be subject to a fine of $1,000. H. G.

Art. X.—BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

The establishment of a statistical bureau is one of the most important measures of the United States Congress. A more valuable appendage could not be added to the general government. Were statistical knowledge more widely diffused, many blunders of legislation would be avoided —blunders that have disturbed instead of protecting business, and aggravated instead of allaying prejudices that unhappily array against each other in different sections of our common country.

We cordially rejoice at the partial adoption of a project marked so strongly with the features of practical utility, which generally characterized the legislative labors of Zador Pratt; for it is but justice to render to that gentleman an emphatic acknowledgement for his persevering and successful advocacy of this important measure. Among the numerous valuable movements which Col. Pratt has made in Congress, scarcely any one will redound more to his credit in future years, than this project for diffusing among his countrymen a fuller knowledge of statistics essential to the business man and the scholar, as well as the legislator. If "the man who causes two blades of grass to grow where but one grew before" is worthy of enduring remembrance, the successful advocate of the American Statistical Bureau cannot and will not readily be forgotten.

Such of our readers as have not turned their attention to this matter, should examine some of the reports submitted to Congress by Col. Pratt. One of these reports contains a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury, in which that officer does himself credit by sustaining the bureau of statistics as a measure worthy of the great state which its projector partly represents; and we know not how we can employ a page or two more

profitably to our readers, than by quoting some of the reasons submitted by Col. Pratt in furtherance of his favorite object. Our mercantile readers will see that the matter has direct reference to their interests among others, and is hence worthy of their particular attention. Though a mechanic himself, Col. Pratt is never forgetful of the interests of the merchant or the farmer; and his own success as a tradesman, of which we furnished some notice in a brief sketch of the leather manufacture in 1840, presents one of the most exhilarating examples that could be offered to his fellow-citizens in any department of business—Col. Pratt having literally "worked his way" to the head of his profession, being owner now of one of the largest tanneries in the world. But now for some of the reasons adduced in his last report upon a statistical bureau:—

1. By furnishing correct and official information relating to all the great interests of the country—it would prevent unintentional partial legislation in favor of one or more, to the injury of the rest. The knowledge which such a bureau would annually present, would form the safest basis for both national and state legislation.

2. It would facilitate legislation, by supplying ready information to the national legislature upon all subjects on which it might wish to act. The replies given to all calls for information would be prompt; and when compared with those which are now obtained, after weeks or months of delay, they would be found to be more complete and accurate, more compact and better digested, giving the information sought in a smaller compass and more convenient shape. Thus correct and ready information would be furnished to the inquirer; the hurry and inconvenience, and often injurious delay to the regular work of the departments, would be avoided; and the public service be promoted, by a more ready and accurate despatch of public business.

3. The establishment of such a bureau would greatly facilitate the business of the departments, by enabling the respective officers thereof to ascertain, by a brief inspection, the absolute and relative condition of every interest, the amount of every source of revenue, and every object of expenditure; and every question which the duties of their office, the wishes of the legislature, or the interests of the public might prompt, would receive a ready and correct reply.

4. Such a bureau would, in a comparatively short time, furnish correct information respecting the commercial, financial, the navigating and shipping, the manufacturing, and the agricultural interests of the country; a digested body of facts relative to the revenue, the custom-house, the post-office, the land-office, and the Indian department; correct statements respecting the population, the expenses and details of the army and navy, the progress of internal improvements, the state of banks and other institutions, and of monetary affairs and exchanges; and, in short, a regular, connected, and methodized arrangement of every subject to which facts and figures bear any relation, and which are in any way connected with the history, the progress, and the condition of the nation at large, and those of the various states and territories. And here it may be remarked, that, by a full and complete arrangement of the prices of stocks, the rated exchange, the quantity of unemployed capital, (as exhibited by the amount of deposits in banks, and other variations in the money market,) the best opportunities for the execution of the government financial operations would be ascertained, and materially promoted.

5. The duties of the bureau would extend to the arrangement, condensation, and elucidation of the statistics of foreign nations, and to all the various branches of international commercial intercourse. Materials for this part of the business are daily accumulating, especially from consuls and other public agents abroad. The information contained in the various documents received is always of importance, and often of the highest value; but it is now only of partial service to the legislature and the public, by its not being methodized and arranged; and the various insulated facts are rendered valueless, for want of collation and juxtaposition.

6. The labors of a statistical bureau would most essentially contribute to the increase of sound knowledge upon all subjects connected with national and

international affairs among the people. The theories (often conflicting) of political economists, would give place to the practical results of experience, the sober truths of figures, and the unerring demonstration of facts. The true interests of the people of the country, as a people one and indivisible, would be perceived and understood. Knowledge of the most important kind would be given to the community; additional power, the result of knowledge, would be placed in the hands of the legislature; the welfare of the country would be advanced, by its interests being better understood; and legislation would be consistent and onwards, uniformly conducting to individual happiness and national honor and prosperity. It is hoped that nations will no longer seek to conquer by war or physical force, but by an honorable rivalry in the cultivation of the arts of peace, of commerce, of agriculture, of manufactures, and of science. Practical and useful information must be furnished to our people, to enable them to compete with other nations in this laudable career. The object of this bureau would be to furnish this information, and thus place the materials for sound thought, and the foundation for correct action, within the grasp of every American citizen.

ART. XI.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.—No. VI.

1788. *Cotton planted in Georgia and Carolina.*—Richad Leake, Esq., made an extensive and very successful experiment for introducing a new staple for the planting interest of Georgia, the planting of cotton. Several planters in Georgia and Carolina followed the example with similar success. Mr. Leake sent samples of his cotton to the Philadelphia Society for encouraging manufactures, that the quality might be examined. The black cotton seed was brought about this time into Georgia from the Bahamas.

1789. *Barrell's Sound.*—Barrell's Sound, on the northwest coast of America, was first visited by Captain Gray in the Washington. It was named for Joseph Barrell, Esq., of Charlestown.

1791. *Bank of the United States.*—The United States Bank, with a capital of $10,000,000, was established at Philadelphia, by the name of "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States." The revenue of the United States was $4,771,200; and the expenditure $3,798,436.

Exports to New York.—The exports from New York to foreign parts amounted to $2,505,465.

Commerce of Providence.—The number of sail of vessels belonging to the county of Providence, in Rhode Island, was 129; the tonnage was 11,942.*

First export of cotton from the United States.—The first parcel of cotton, of American growth, was exported from the United States.

Cotton Spinning.—A factory for spinning cotton by water power was put in successful operation by Samuel Slater, at Pawtucket, in Rhode Island.†

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* In 1764, there belonged to the same county 54 sail of vessels, containing 4,320 tons.

† After some attempts by Daniel Anthony to establish a factory for spinning cotton by water power, in which he only partially succeeded, Moses Brown, and others, advertised for an English machinist to make improvements. Mr. Slater, then a young man, came from England, in 1790. The machinery which he introduced into the establishment at Pawtucket, is in successful operation to this day; and, with some modifications, has served as a model for the immense number of factories in Rhode Island and its vicinity, if not throughout the United States. [*Letter from an intelligent correspondent at Providence*, 1828.]

1792. *United States mint.*—Congress passed an act for establishing a mint, and regulating the coins of the United States.

Banks.—The South Carolina Bank, the Bank of Pennsylvania, and the Bank of New Hampshire were established. The Union Bank in Boston was incorporated.

Exports of Charleston.—The exports from Charleston, South Carolina, this year, were estimated at $2,917,979.

Culture of silk.—The rearing of mulberry trees and silk worms, and the culture of silk, had so far succeeded in Connecticut, that a minister in Branford had a silk gown made for him this year, at his own home. This was the first clergyman's gown fabricated throughout in America.*

Revenues of the United States.—The revenues of the United States were estimated at $3,700,000. The tonnage of vessels which paid duty in the ports of the United States, between the 1st of October, 1791, and the 30th of September, 1792, including the coasting and fishing vessels, was upwards of 800,000 tons.

1793. *Navigation of New York.*—There entered the port of New York 683 vessels from foreign ports, and 1381 coasting vessels.

Exports of the United States.—The exports of the United States were estimated at upwards of $26,000,000.

1795. *Exports.*—The exports of the United States amounted to upwards of $47,000,000. The net amount of imports and tonnage was nearly $8,000,000.

Charleston and Baltimore.—The first vessel despatched from Carolina for the East Indies, sailed this year from Charleston. The amount of imports to Baltimore was upwards of $5,000,800. There were observed to pass up to Baltimore, this year, 109 ships, 162 brigs and snows, and 5,464 bay craft.

1797. *Exports and post-office.*—The exports of the United States amounted to above $57,000,000. The mails of the United States were carried over 14,385 miles of territory; in which space there were upwards of 480 post-offices. The revenue of the post-office, this year, was $46,000.

1798. *Protection of commerce.*—An act was passed, more effectually to protect the commerce and coasts of the United States. This act was passed in May. In June, Congress passed an act to authorize the defence of the merchant vessels of the United States against French depredations.

1800. *Bankruptcy.*—Congress enacted a law for establishing a uniform system of bankruptcy.

Census, Shipping, and Post-office.—By the second census, the number of inhabitants was found to be 5,305,482. The shipping of the United States amounted to 939,000 tons. The revenue of the post-office was $80,000.

Canal.—Santee canal, extending 22 miles between Santee and Cooper rivers, began to be passed through by boats. It cost the proprietors above $600,000; a sum exceeding seven times the amount of what the province sold for 72 years before.

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* Stiles, Lit. Diary. The Rev. Jason Atwater, minister of Branford, showed the gown to Dr. Stiles, who writes: "He raised and manufactured the silk from his own trees and worms." On the 20th of January, 1791, Dr. Stiles "saw a pair of silk stockings, woven at Norwich, in a loom made there—weighed 4 ounces—white. Also, a handkerchief made at Northford, 2½ ounces; both made of silk raised in New Haven and Northford."

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

THE MASSASOIT—LIBEL FOR MARINERS' WAGES.

In the District Court of the United States, before Judge Sprague. William Jones and others, libellants; Thomas Jones and others, claimants.

This was a libel for mariners' wages against the proceeds of the wreck of the ship Massasoit. The facts were substantially as follows:—The ship sailed from Calcutta in the month of July last, with a valuable cargo on board, bound to Boston. The crew shipped in Calcutta. The ship was wrecked in a snow storm, on the night of the 11th December, on Point Alderton, at the mouth of this harbor. The crew remained on board until the afternoon of the next day, when they were taken off by a life-boat, clinging to the bowsprit, and barely escaping with their lives. They were landed in an exhausted state, from hunger as well as from cold and wet. In the meantime, the owners of both the ship and cargo abandoned to the underwriters, and their agent arrived at the place of the wreck, with a force from the city, about the time the crew were taken ashore. The master gave up all control to the agent for the underwriters, who proceeded, with his men, to save what could be saved of the cargo and vessel, and they were so employed for a week or ten days. The vessel was a complete wreck, but her cables and anchors were weighed and her fragments were collected. A considerable part of the cargo was also saved and brought to the city, and placed at the disposal of whom it might concern. On the second day such of the crew as were able, were on the beach and rendered some trifling service in picking up articles, but neither joined nor were requested to join with the men who were working under the direction of the agent. In the course of the third day, they came up to the city.

Judge Sprague—In the view I take of this case it is not necessary to decide the question whether any freight is due here, either under the contract of parties, or upon general principles of law.

There is a current maxim of law that "freight is the mother of wages," and the principle has been asserted that no wages are earned if freight is not earned. Cases have arisen in this country and in Europe, where there has been a wreck and total loss of freight, but where parts of the vessel have been saved, towards the saving of which the crew contributed by their exertions. In all such cases the crew has been allowed a lien upon the wreck or its proceeds for some sort of compensation. The question has been whether they shall have wages, under their contract, or whether they are entitled to salvage. In the only American cases of early date, cited in Pet. Ad. Rep., the crew were in such cases allowed their wages in fact, calculated exactly upon their contract, though the court seems to have hovered between calling their claim one for wages, or for salvage. The first edition of Abbot, on shipping, speaks of the point as unsettled in England, but cites the maxim which connects freight and wages as a controlling rule. Story J. in the Two Catherines, (2 Mason's R. 319,) intimates that it would be more consistent both with principle and public policy to hold that the contract subsists, and wages are due, but gave the crew a *quasi* salvage, which was in fact, just the amount of their wages. Judge Ware, in the Eliza and Jane, (Ware's R. 41) seems to be in nearly the same state of opinion.

The reason of this state of decisions is, that the courts have been in uncertainty from the conflict of the ancient maxim, never formily departed from, and the evident policy and principle of the law. A few years after the above decisions, the point came up distinctly, before Lord Stowell in the case of the Neptune, in 1 Haggerd's Rep. He held the question to be an open one in England, and decided that the contract subsists until the crew are discharged, as well after the wreck, as to the fragments and cargo, as while the ship is habitable; and consequently, that wages are due, unless forfeited by neglect of duty or other misconduct. From language used by Judge Story and Judge Ware in the later

cases, where this point is used *arguendo*, and from the notes to the last edition of Abbott, I have no doubt that the doctrine of the Neptune is well received in this country. It is certainly established in England.

To my own mind the principle of that case is the only satisfactory one. It is a better rule for public policy. Wages and the contract are inseparable. If wages are lost, the contract and obligation to work and to obey orders, cease also. The crew then becomes volunteers. They act or not, as they please, and in the manner they please, for salvage. They are under no orders, and will try only to secure what will pay themselves. The owners will also be subject to open and doubtful claims for salvage, instead of contract prices for wages. The rule now is that the crew are bound to labor on board while the ship is habitable, and on shore in saving the wreck and cargo. This is under their contract, and under orders of their officers. Failure to do this duty would carry with it forfeiture of wages. Performance of this duty entiles them to wages.

How does the principle apply to the case in hearing? It is admitted that the men did all their duty until taken off. It is clear that they were not able to do any work for the rest of that day. It is contended that they did nothing in the way of saving the wreck and cargo, but left the work to others and came up to the city. The answer to this is, I think, satisfactory. Before they were able to work, the owners had abandoned, the agent of the underwriters had arrived, the master had given everything up to him, the agent had (or could have had) a sufficient force of well and able men from the city, and both from humanity and policy the crew were not called upon to do duty. This amounts to a discharge. They were about the beach, known by every one to be there, no provision was made by the agent or the owners either for their laboring or for their maintenance. They were in fact superseded, intentionally, and very properly. They saw that it was so, and had a right to consider themselves discharged.

The case is peculiar from the fact that the wreck and all pertaining to it passed so soon into the hands of the owners and underwriters, with a force of competent persons to do all the duty. If this had not been the case, (as at a distant or foreign port,) or if there was any evidence that the crew intentionally avoided duty, or refused to do it, understandingly, when reasonably required, I should refuse their wages. Decree for wages for the voyage.

POLICY OF INSURANCE—TOTAL LOSS.

In Nisi Prius Court, (South Lancashire Assizes,) August 23d, 1844, Justice Cresswell on the Bench.

This was an action brought by Thomas and Richard Eccles, of Lower Darwen, near Blackburn, against the defendant, Samuel Harper, to recover the amount of a policy of insurance for £1,200, effected on 220 bales of cotton on board the ship Caledonia, on her voyage from Savannah to Liverpool. The declaration stated the total loss of that vessel; and the defendant pleaded that the policy had been obtained under circumstances of fraud and misrepresentation.

Mr. Martin opened the case for the defence. He said the plaintiffs were manufacturers, carrying on business near Blackburn, that the defendant was an underwriter at Lloyds, and that the action had been brought to recover the sum of £1,200, being the amount of an insurance, effected on the 2d of May last, on 220 bales of cotton, shipped on board the Caledonia, from Savannah to Liverpool. He was counsel for the defendant, and bound to make out, to the satisfaction of the jury, that the policy had been made under circumstances which disentitled the plaintiffs to recover. They were all aware that a contract of insurance was rather a peculiar one, and that, in order to enable the insured to succeed in actions of the present kind, he was bound to show that he had acted with the utmost fairness towards the insurance companies. He was bound, for instance, to communicate all the material facts to the ship, the voyage, &c.; and in the event of his failing to do so, he could not succeed in compelling payment of the insurance. This had been the law in the respect to policies of insurance for a great length of time. Lord Mansfield, a chief justice in the Court of Queen's Bench, might almost be said to have made the law on the subject, and since then it was laid down by all the judges, that

persons effecting policies were bound to communicate all the material facts. It, moreover, appeared, from a note by Mr. Sergeant Williams, that a framed misrepresentation in the matter of the communication, would have the effect of making the contract void. This being the undoubted law upon the subject, the question for the jury would be, whether, under the circumstances of the present case, the plaintiffs were entitled to recover. It appeared that the plaintiffs had long been in the habit of ordering cotton from the house of Andrew Lowe & Co., of Savannah—a respectable firm connected with the house of Isaac Lowe & Co., of Liverpool; and they had been ordering cotton from that house for a considerable time. Savannah was a port in Georgia, whence cotton was sent in large quantities to Liverpool; and the well-known rates of insurance for that voyage varied from 12s. 6d. to 15s. The average length of the voyage was twenty-five, thirty, and thirty-five days; and at the time the policy was effected in the present instance the ships were performing the voyage in the ordinary time. A ship, called the Coronation, for instance, sailed on the 3d of March, and arrived in April. In actions on policies, the parties effecting the insurance were bound to furnish the correspondence which had passed respecting the voyage, and the other important facts; and he (the learned counsel) held in his hand copies of the letters which had passed under the order of the judge, and which would convey to the jury the facts respecting the shipment, and communicate the knowledge which the plaintiff possessed on the first of May, when the order for the insurance was given. The order for the cotton was given in a letter dated the 3d of December, 1842. It was addressed by the plaintiffs to Andrew Lowe & Co., ordering them to ship 500 bags or bales of cotton. The next letter was dated the 3d of January, 1843, and that contained an order, precisely in the same words, ordering 200 bales more. On the 14th of March, 1843, the plaintiffs received from Arthur Lowe & Co. a letter, dated the 20th of February, stating that they had shipped on board a first-class new British ship, called Eliza, 222 bales, and 200 on board the Coronation, and recommending insurance: so that, at the date in question, the plaintiffs were put in possession of the knowledge that two shipments had been made. The letter was written on the first sheet of the bill of lading; and from the bill of lading it appeared that, instead of the first lot being shipped on board the Eliza, the shipment took place on board the American ship Caledonia, Alexander, master. The plaintiffs effected no insurance on either the Coronation or the Caledonia at the time of receiving the advices. They never insured the cotton on the Coronation. They stood their own insurers on that; and upon the 7th of April the Coronation arrived safely in Liverpool with the 200 bales of cotton which had been put on board at Savannah, and they were delivered to the plaintiffs, the date of that bill of lading being the 17th of March, three days later than the date of the bill of lading by the Caledonia. The order for the insurance by the Caledonia was given on the 1st of May, to Cunliffe & Co., and through them, to Cunard & Co; it arrived in London about 3 o'clock, P. M., and the order was a simple one to insure £1,200 on 200 bales of cotton on board the Caledonia for the plaintiffs, stating nothing more than that the ship was coming in the ordinary way with the cotton. Under these circumstances, the policy was effected at Lloyds, at the customary premium of 12s. 6d.; and upon the 2d of May this insurance was effected as if it had been on a ship likely to leave Savannah a fortnight or week before, when the underwriter discovered in the early part of the month of June, that the vessel he had insured on the 2d of May had sailed from Savannah on the 17th March, being a period of forty-four days after the time she had sailed, and ten days beyond the ordinary risk of the voyage, he instantly made application to the brokers as to why they should have sought to effect an insurance under the circumstances mentioned. The plaintiffs accordingly wrote back to say that they had abstained from insuring because of the mistake about the Eliza, and that they had insured immediately after they had distinctly ascertained that the cotton was shipped on board the Caledonia.

Several witnesses having been examined for the defendant, Mr. Knowles addressed the jury on the part of the plaintiffs. He contended that his clients had acted with perfect fairness; that they had neither concealed nor misrepresented

any of the facts; and there was no ground for saying that the underwriter was to be released from his insurance on any of the grounds set forward in the case, inasmuch as he possessed the fullest means of information at Lloyds as to the time of sailing from all the ports in the world. He also contended that the average period of the voyages from Savannah to Liverpool was understated, and that a ship, under the circumstances of the Caledonia, would probably occupy somewhere about forty days on the voyage. He observed that, if seven guineas had been asked for effecting the policy, it would have been willingly paid, and that the plaintiffs were wholly ignorant of the time the vessel sailed. The jury retired, and, after an absence from court for several hours, returned a verdict for the plaintiffs, damages £300.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

REVIEW OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS, ETC., IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES—IMPORT OF WHEAT AND FLOUR INTO ENGLAND, WITH THE QUARTERLY AVERAGE PRICES PER QUARTER OF WHEAT—PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES, HOW AFFECTED—THE CURRENCY AND BANKING—MERCHANDISE SHIPPED ON THE OHIO CANALS—AGGREGATE LOANS OF THE OHIO BANKS—EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES FROM THE PORTS OF CLEVELAND, PORTSMOUTH, AND CINCINNATI, OHIO—BANKING LAW OF OHIO—CHARTERED AND FREE CIRCULATION, AND SPECIE, OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK—SCOTCH BANKING SYSTEM, ETC., ETC.

DURING the year 1844, a great change took place in the course of financial and commercial affairs, in both England and the United States. After a long downward tendency in prices and values, a speculative feeling became again apparent; and, with abundance of money, both in England and the United States, presented an improvement in foreign commerce, and in manufacturing employments. In both countries, however, it is apparent that the abundance of agricultural products has resulted in low prices, and consequently in a depression of that interest. The high prices of food, which, for some length of time prior to 1844, prevailed in England, operated partly to produce a stagnation in the manufacturing districts. At the same time, those prices induced capital to leave less profitable employments for that of agriculture, which naturally drew from the manufacturing districts a portion of their floating population. The means thus provided for furnishing a large harvest, influenced by a favorable season, produced an unusual abundance, and consequently low prices—highly favorable to manufacturers, but disastrous to the growers of bread-stuffs. Hence the disquieting contrast presented by the agricultural interests of England, when compared with others. In the United States, causes somewhat similar have produced like results. The continued large quantities of land, which are annually brought under cultivation in the United States, not as a matter of business profit to the farmers, but to afford an independent home to hardy settlers, pour forth increasing quantities of surplus produce, that insure a continuance of a general level, so low as to deprive the cultivators of any section of considerable profits, applicable to the extensive purchase of consumable goods. This is more particularly the case in seasons like the last, when good harvests in England curtail the quantity she would otherwise demand from abroad. Great, however, as has been the stimulus to production, under the high prices of the few last years, England still requires considerable quantities—the more so that, when it can be furnished low, the consumption undergoes a considerable increase; that is, when good wheat is cheap, it comes more into the consumption of those who otherwise would confine themselves to food of a more ordinary description. The following is a table of the imports and prices of wheat and wheat flour into England, up to January, 1845:—

IMPORT OF WHEAT AND FLOUR INTO ENGLAND, WITH THE QUARTERLY AVERAGE PRICES PER QUARTER OF WHEAT.

Years.	Wheat. Foreign. *Qrs.*	Wheat. Colonial. *Qrs.*	Flour. Foreign. *Cwts.*	Flour. Colonial. *Cwts.*	Prices. 1st qr. *s. d.*	2d qr. *s. d.*	3d qr. *s. d.*	4th qr. *s. d.*
1838,	1,044,225	.....	351,495	50,330	55 0	62 0	69 0	72 6
1839,	2,778,345	30	743,320	43,800	75 0	61 0	70 6	67 0
1840,	2,022,100	4,600	632,320	392,100	66 5	68 2	69 4	61 6
1841,	2,772,560	65,726	632,730	701,815	62 0	62 11	69 0	63 9
1842,	2,759,265	38,300	562,135	548,910	60 4	61 8	58 1	48 11
1843,	920,800	19,630	98,100	294,180	48 0	47 2	54 1	51 4
1844,	1,068,570	44,470	306,000	774,800	52 4	55 8	52 7	46 2

Thus, notwithstanding that the harvest of last year was above an average, both in quantity and quality, the import was equal to about 11,000,000 bushels. At the same time, the harvests of Europe were generally bad; and the flour, in consequence, came mostly from Canada, being of United States growth originally. We believe, however, that but small profits, if not actual losses, for the most part, attended the operation. From the United States, the direct export of bread-stuffs was not large; and the general level of prices was therefore low. Thus far, the leading features of affairs, both in England and the United States, have not been dissimilar; but, in the progress of business, that which stimulates trade in England, depresses it in the United States—viz: the low prices of food—because, in England, the buyers of food are the buyers of goods; in the United States, the sellers of food are buyers of goods. In England, therefore, the larger the portion of a given amount of wages, abstracted for indispensable food, the less remains to be appropriated to the purchase of goods. In the United States, the smaller are the money proceeds of a year's agricultural labor, the more limited is necessarily the purchase of goods.

Another influence has probably been in operation in the United States, to affect injuriously the level of prices; and that is, the continued scarcity of money in the large agricultural districts. It is true that, since the withdrawal of the paper medium furnished by the banks, the specie currency has been gradually on the increase; but that operation is too slow to impart to prices that buoyancy which they feel under the immediate discounts of banks to forwarders, shippers, and millers. In England and the United States, the profits of the manufacturers, in the first nine months of 1844, were probably greater than ever before, in a corresponding period of time. In the former country, this doubtless led to an increase of speed of machinery, and a more vigorous production; the effect of which was, to lower the prices of goods in the hands of store-keepers, whose sale was not sufficiently rapid to sustain the price before such prolific supplies. In the United States, we discover a similar operation, in the manner in which goods, both foreign and domestic, have been forced out of first hands, through the extension of credits, or the notes of country dealers, used as a means of procuring discounts on city paper. By this operation, nearly all those country stores, the shelves of which became bare under the economical purchases of previous years, were re-stocked with new goods, in excess of what could be sold in season to meet the notes by which they were purchased. The difficulty of collecting these outstanding obligations has given a check to the whole movement of business, while increased supplies are pressing upon the markets. This check has been much more promptly felt than in former years, owing to the scarcity of banking credits in the western and southwestern states. Formerly, when notes matured, for which goods had been purchased, the note being payable at a local bank, it was frequently met, not by actual payment, but through the discount of an accommodation note, or a renewal. By these means, the apparent collections from the country, in favor of the city, continued; and, by

so doing, sustained confidence, and encouraged new credits. Of late years, however, it has come to be generally acknowledged that these credits operate injuriously in the end; inasmuch as that they foster and sustain an unhealthy state of business. This idea seems to prevail both in England and the United States. In England, it has led to the positive prohibition of a *credit* paper currency, that shall fluctuate in its amount. By a "*credit*" paper currency, we mean those promissory notes of the bank, purporting to be payable on demand, in gold and silver, and which are known to be issued in excess of the ability to make good the payments. After an experiment of one hundred and fifty years, the English government have restricted the bank issues to an equivalent for the gold and silver they may have on hand. In very many of the United States, banking has ceased to exist; and, by the gradual operation of the New York laws, it will, in the course of time, become greatly curtailed in this state. There are, in New York, eighty-five incorporated banks, and seventy free banks, under the new law. Much the largest portion of the banking business is done by the former banks; but, as their charters expire, they are required to wind up, or to go on with their business under the new law, by giving security for their circulating notes. This latter provision seems to exercise a great influence in keeping down the circulation. The free banks have been in operation since 1838; and, as yet, furnish but 25 per cent of the circulation within the state. The want of a currency at the west, which has been severely felt, during the transition from a paper to a metallic currency, has, in Ohio, produced a new law, authorizing the business of banking. It would seem, however, that the projectors of that law were aware that the New York system affords but a very limited scope to the extension of paper issues—a law has therefore been passed, which permits two plans of banking. One plan is, briefly, for not less than seven banks, composed of not less than five persons each, to organize themselves as branches, with a capital not less than $100,000, of a "State bank," composed of one delegate from each bank—this body to be a "board of control," and be incorporated with that name; this board to issue circulating notes to the branches, upon a deposit of 10 per cent of the amount of circulation, in Ohio stock or money, to constitute a safety fund, out of which the notes of any broken bank shall be redeemed—30 per cent of the capital to be paid up before commencing business. No particular restrictions are imposed upon the general banking business. The other plan allowed by the law, is intended to resemble the New York free banking law. It allows a number of persons, not less than five, to constitute a bank, with a capital not less than $50,000—30 per cent to be paid up, and an equal amount, in Ohio 6's, or United States stock, to be deposited with the state treasurer, who shall issue to them a sum equivalent, in circulating notes. It is obvious that, while such superior privileges are allowed to the state branches, this latter part of the law will not be availed of to any considerable extent, and that considerable issues will take place under the "state branches." The object of the law was, to furnish a safe and convenient currency, on the plan of the New York free law. This end will not be accomplished under the new act. The New York laws do not authorize two plans of banking, although they tolerate the chartered banks as long as their charters run. Notwithstanding that these latter are restricted as to their line of discounts, and the free banks are not, yet the charters offer so many greater inducements over the free banking law, that none of them would voluntarily come under the latter. The Ohio law gives a choice, and its free banking provisions must consequently remain a dead letter. As we have said, the object of these laws seems not to promote a healthy banking business, but to "furnish a currency," which, it is supposed, will facilitate business. A great reduction has taken place in bank credits in that state, the effect of which is traced as follows:—

POUNDS OF MERCHANDISE SHIPPED ON THE OHIO CANALS, WITH THE AGGREGATE LOANS OF THE OHIO BANKS.

	Merchandise shipped.				*B'k loans.*
Years.	Cleveland.	Portsmouth.	Cincinnati.	Total.	
1832,.....	5,260,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
1833,.....	9,896,440	.....	6,124,000	.....	.....
1834,.....	10,127.613	.....	5,568,000	.....	.....
1835,.....	14,839,950	5,868,605	7,217,000	27,925,555	$10,071,250
1836,.....	13,384,959	7,220,003	6,065,000	26,669,962	17,079,250
1837,.....	10,757,386	3,487,271	6,020,000	20,264,657	18,175,699
1838,.....	18,875,286	3,763,333	6,887,000	29,525,679	19,505,662
1839,.....	19,125,282	7,085,735	8,664,640	34,875,657	16,520,360
1840,.....	10,783,514	6,747,565	5,566,282	23,097,361	13,414,667
1841,.....	15,164,747	5,773,929	4,359,433	25,298,109	9,818,128
1842,.....	10,091,803	5,111,112	2,842,861	18,045,776	6,937,980
1843,.....	13,250,758	5,886,587	3,651,293	22,788,638	4,019,163
1844,.....	11,552,460	5,176,823	4,112,291	20,841,774	2,845,345

In this table, we may observe that the large imports of merchandise, in some former years, were concomitant with extended bank loans—a means by which the credits were unduly sustained, and sales of goods prolonged in excess of the means of payment. This took place during that season of speculation which pervaded all sections of the Union, and was a necessary consequence of that ill-judged multiplication of banks created to supply a supposed want, induced by the anticipated expiration of the charter of the late national bank. The leading exports of the state have, in the same years, been as follows:—

EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES FROM THE PORTS OF CLEVELAND, PORTSMOUTH, AND CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Years.	Wool. *Lbs.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Lard. *Lbs.*	Coal. *Bush.*	Wh. & flour. *Bush.*
1835,.....	.....	.....	522,498	50,473	1,178,706
1836,.....	.....	43,073	638,269	84,124	1,467,520
1837,.....	.....	70,889	1,550,410	183,484	1,636,061
1838,.....	.....	70,614	2,144,231	73,292	2,738,195
1839,.....	82,102	120,566	3,872,891	134,881	3,566,615
1840,.....	63,349	67,205	2,230,579	172,206	5,778,392
1841,.....	138,353	103,634	4,117,030	478,370	4,805,327
1842,.....	224,660	121,236	4,937,178	466,844	4,244,663
1843,.....	429,679	93,098	6,467,157	387,834	4,486,114
1844,.....	978,794	162,623	9,919,229	540,305	4,905,915

The quantity of merchandise imported into Ohio, in 1844, was 60 per cent of the quantity imported in 1839, when the loans of the banks had been running near their highest points. At the same time, the exports of produce have largely increased. The value of the imported merchandise is officially estimated at $300 per 1,000 lbs.; consequently, the import of 1839 was worth $10,462,500, and that of 1844 $6,252,300—a reduction of $4,210,200. At the same time, an increase of exports took place, calculating the quantities at present prices as follows:—

		Value.
Wool,.....lbs.	896,692	$448,346
Pork,.....bbls.	42,000	420,000
Lard,.....lbs.	6,046,338	420,000
Coal,.....bush.	405,424	202,712
Wheat,.....	738,600	738,600
Total increase, five articles,.....		$2,229,656

This makes a difference of $6,439,856 more, in the year's business of 1844, in favor of Ohio, than that of 1839. This was certainly a great improvement in the condition of her trade, and maintained a steady rate of exchanges, notwithstanding the large sum she pays annually, as interest on her foreign debt, and the amounts of capital which were

withdrawn from her liquidated banks. It has also come to be true, that the increase of manufactures within her borders has greatly curtailed her dependence for supplies of consumable goods on her eastern neighbors. This was the gradually improving condition of that noble state, down to the commencement of 1845, when the bank law, above alluded to, was enacted. The operation of that law, we apprehend, will, if confidence in its permanency is felt, exercise a great influence, not only upon the business of Ohio, but of the states with which her dealings mostly take place. We allude to the permanency of the law, because a powerful political party has already raised the cry of repeal. Such a result will, however, not affect the well-being of such companies as may be formed under its provisions, which incorporate them to 1866. It also allows twelve banks, already in existence, with an aggregate capital of $3,792,240, to embrace its provisions, and go on with their business. The threatened repeal may, therefore, only hasten the formation of companies; and, by so doing, create a sudden demand for money, to be succeeded by a new supply. The abundance of money, likely to follow a sudden increase of banking, will doubtless be productive of increased purchases of goods, and an advance of prices of produce within the state. If Ohio were isolated, or had no prompt and free communication with the members of the Union which surround her, and her debt was due to her own citizens, the influence of this would be favorable; inasmuch as it would greatly diminish the taxation of the people—as, for instance, the total taxes, for all purposes, paid in Ohio last year, amounted to $3,340,663. Of this amount, $1,000,000 was sent out of the state, to pay taxes. Now, these taxes are paid by the people, out of the proceeds of their industry. The export of wheat, last year, was 4,305,215 bushels; which, at eighty cents per bushel, average, is equal to the whole amount of taxes. If, therefore, by an increase of the currency, the price could be raised to $1 00, it would be equal to a diminution of 25 per cent of the taxes. In such a case, provided all the holders of state bonds lived within the state, their means would diminish as prices rose, and taxes become lightened. As, however, the currency of Ohio does not regulate the prices of that which her people sell, but affects only those of which they purchase, they cannot derive a benefit from an increased currency, unless that of the whole country swells in the same proportion. Inasmuch as that Ohio, in common with Michigan and Illinois, competes with western New York in the Atlantic markets, a generally advanced level of prices, above that of the other states, must increase her imports, and diminish her exports. It is true that the currency proposed to be issued will doubtless flow over into the surrounding states, to some extent. We are, however, of opinion that it will almost altogether emanate from the state branch portion of the new law, rather than from the independent banking provisions; because the latter requires the use of more capital to obtain the same end. In the state of New York, where the provisions in relation to the stock banks are more liberal, and those of the safety fund banks more restrictive, than similar enactments in the Ohio law, the free banks have made but little progress; and that on compulsion, mostly. The following shows the progress which the paper circulation of the state of New York has made, since the enactment of the free law:—

CHARTERED AND FREE CIRCULATION, AND SPECIE, OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Years.	Chartered.	Free.	Tot. circulation.	Specie.
1837,.....	$24,198,000	none.	$24,198,000	$5,117,063
1838,.....	12,432,478	none.	12,432,478	9,311,495
1839,.....	19,373,149	$2,500,000	21,573,149	6,602,706
1840,.....	10,360,592	6,012,000	16,372,592	7,000,529
1841,.....	15,235,056	5,353,067	20,588,123	5,429,622
1842,.....	12,372,764	3,812,437	15,185,201	5,350,827
1843,.....	8,336,266	3,695,603	12,031,671	8,388,559
1844,.....	13,665,949	3,547,352	17,213,101	11,502,709
1845,.....	15,114,686	5,037,533	20,152,219	8,968,092

The law was passed in April, 1838; and by January, 1839, a considerable sum had

got into circulation, based on real estate, and the stocks of all the states. In the year 1840, a very active competition between the new safety fund institutions took place. In the year 1841, a great number failed, and the law was materially altered. From that time, the institutions have made but little progress, voluntarily. Of the increase of free circulation during the past year, amounting to $1,490,000, $652,946 was from banks of the city of New York, whose charters having expired, were compelled either to relinquish business, or to embrace the new law. Of the remaining $837,954, about $712,845 composed the circulation of new banks, opened in 1844. At the same time, notwithstanding that the number of chartered banks has been diminished by these causes, the circulation of the remainder has nearly doubled in the last two years. We have here an indication that the free bank law operates less beneficially for the banks than the safety fund system. The only manner in which the free system in New York has progressed voluntarily, of late, has been by individuals of small capital, say from $5,000 to $10,000, who purchase therewith the required stock for deposit with the comptroller; and, receiving an equal amount of circulating notes, pay them again out for a further quantity of stock; by which means, a circulation of some $80,000 to $90,000 may be sustained on a capital of $10,000. There is no actual banking business in this process—that is to say, there is no capital loaned to dealers or tradesmen, to assist them in the prosecution of their business. A quantity of paper money is put into circulation through purchases of stocks, which inures to the benefit of the issuing individual. This movement is subject to a severe check, whenever, from any cause, a demand for the precious metals takes place. Such a demand will return these bills upon the issuers faster than they can take them up, and their only reliance is then the forced sale, at the most unfavorable moment, of their securities. It is observable, however, that the New York law, contemplating that these issues would form a sound and convenient currency, left the amount to be regulated by the actual wants of trade, fixing no limits to the sum which should be in circulation at one time, wisely leaving the wants of business to regulate it. The Ohio law, however, as if apprehensive of a want of soundness in the issues it authorizes, ostensibly to facilitate the business of the community, restricts the issues to an arbitrary amount, based on no real or pretended estimate of the wants of the community. By what process the idea is arrived at, that Ohio requires $6,000,000 of bank capital, and no more, is in no way made manifest. It is undoubtedly true that the circulation of sound credits, to an extent proportioned to the actual business of the country, is of great assistance, and in no ways injurious. The evils of bank paper arise from the abuse and mismanagement of the issues, and the limited number of those who can manage with firmness and discretion. The loan of bank credits, for a limited period, on paper based upon actual transactions, and in all cases payable promptly at maturity, must always be safe, and requires no other safeguard, whatever; because the payments into the banks, always corresponding with the disbursements, in no case, whatever, can a demand upon the institution arise, beyond its ability to meet it promptly. The difficulty of keeping the discounts within this narrow limit of the actual business of the country, is always admitted. It can be done, in individual banks, only by the constant personal surveillance of a manager, intimately acquainted with the nature of all branches of business in his neighborhood, and the business character of all his customers. Among a number of rival issuers, the only check is a constant and frequent mutual exchange of issues. Banking in New England has been preserved in a more sound condition than in any other section of the Union, from the fact that the leading Boston bank has assumed the power of compelling these prompt and frequent exchanges. The moment any one of the New England banks makes an undue issue of notes, the surplus makes its appearance in Boston, and is promptly returned. This seems to be an adaptation of the far-famed Scotch system, to the peculiarities of New England. The peculiarity of banking in Scotland, and that which constitutes its

chief excellence, is its system of exchanges. By this system, the over-issues of any bank is returned upon it in a manner, and in a time so short, as to remove all inducement to such a step. The exchanges are effected in Edinburgh, where a general exchange of bank-notes of all the banks, without exception, takes place twice a week. On exchange days, clerks representing all the banks of Scotland, meet in the "clearing room," each clerk bringing all the notes his bank collected in Edinburgh; and, by means of its branches, all over the country. A mutual exchange takes place; each clerk receiving from all others the notes on his bank, and giving to each all he holds of theirs. After this exchange, a balance is struck; and each clerk hands to a presiding officer his statement. The ultimate balance is therefore in favor of or against any bank, according to the prudence, or otherwise, of its transactions. The balances must be promptly paid, in £1,000 English exchequer bills, which are issued to the banks directly from the government, and held by them for this purpose. Fractions of £1,000 are paid in gold, or £100 Bank of England notes. It is evident that, under such a system, over-issues become entirely impracticable. By "over-issues," we allude to the discounts of accommodation notes, or lending of circulating paper upon long dates. These regulations were voluntary upon the part of the banks, and have been found to work so well, as to have become permanent. Any bank refusing to exchange, would lose its credit. It is observable that the essence of the system is for each bank to receive in payment the notes of all others in good credit, but to pay out none but its own in the way of business. All that it receives, are promptly presented for payment; and are not, as here, allowed to circulate from hand to hand, to an unlimited amount, and for an indefinite period. The practical effect of this is, that here, the circulation becomes entirely local. The notes of the best banks in the interior of the state, are refused in the city banks; whereas, in Scotland, the note of one bank is as good in one part of the country as another, because every bank readily takes it, and turns it *immediately into money*, by the exchange. Hence, there is no distrust of money, and the aggregate amount maintained in circulation is very large; each bank enjoying precisely the proportion which the business of its section will support. The promises of the banks circulate freely, because the ability to perform the promise is tested twice a week. This system, modified to a greater or less extent, is the only possible check upon excessive issues of circulating notes. The requirement to pay in gold and silver, experience has shown to be no check whatever. It is a requirement which produces bankruptcy, when the evil has taken place; but it in no degree tends to prevent it, or to check that sanguine feeling of full ability to perform, which, in times of speculation, possesses men, to a greater or less degree.

The arrival of the steamer Cambria from Liverpool, to the 4th of March, brings commercial advices of the highest importance. The excess of revenue for the coming year is estimated, in the annual budget of the minister, at £3,410,000, including the property tax. This surplus he proposes to apply to the reduction of duties on a number of articles, mostly comprising, with the exception of sugar, the raw materials of manufacture:—Reduction on sugar duties, £1,300,000; duty on cotton repealed, £680,000; duty on 430 articles in tariff, do., £320,000; export duty on coal, do., £118,000; auction duty, do., £250,000; glass, do., £642,000. Total, £3,310,000.

These reductions on articles of United States production, and now imported into England, amount to over $4,000,000, and admit of the export thither of many articles not hitherto exported to any considerable extent; as sheep's wool, window-glass, vegetable oil, and lead, from which a duty of $4 84 per ton has been removed. The large reduction on sugar will also permit of exports from this country. Under the tariff of last year, as governed by the treaty, some shipments of New Orleans sugar have already been made. These will doubtless turn out profitably, inasmuch as this removal of duty is accompanied by a very general and considerable advance in sugar, arising from the failure of the Cuba crop.

The policy of the British government is avowedly free trade, in its broadest sense—viz: a resort to direct, rather than to indirect taxes. This is to be arrived at by degrees. The property tax has been renewed for three years, to be then subject to the expediency of further reductions in indirect taxes. The tariff of 1842 was directed mostly at articles of food; the present, at raw materials; and the next move will probably be regulated by the success of a negotiation, stated by Sir Robert Peel to be pending with this government, for concessions on British goods, similar to those made by her on United States produce. Although the principle of a reduction of taxes, irrespective of the course of other nations, is avowed, an arrangement with the United States might be productive of advantages to the American farmers, exclusive of those of Europe. The intercourse between the two countries will be immensely enhanced under this policy.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PORT OF AKYAB, IN THE ARRACAN RIVER.

The following official notice, received at the Department of State, from the United States Consul at Lisbon, is published by our government for the information of the mariners of the United States:—

LIGHT-HOUSE.—Notice is hereby given, that a light is now exhibited on the new light-house erected on the Great Savage Rock, at the entrance of the Arracan river, in latitude 20° 5′ N., longitude 92° 55′ 38″ E. The light is elevated 106 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen from the deck of a ship, in clear weather, at a distance of 15 miles. The following directions for entering the port of Akyab at night, by the aid of this light, and one intended to be placed on a light-house now erecting on Mosque Point, within the river, are published for general information:—

SAILING DIRECTIONS FOR THE PORT OF AKYAB, IN THE ARRACAN RIVER.—Ships sailing for Akyab during the S. W. Monsoon, should steer for the south end of the Western Bolongo, in latitude 19° 50′ N., longitude 93° 3′ E.; then, standing along the coast to the northward and westward, about 5 or 6 miles off shore, until the light is sighted on the Great Savage, at the entrance of the Arracan river; then steer so as to bring it to bear N. by E., or N. N. E., and if they intend to run in during the night, with either of these bearings, they will cross the bar in the best water, in 3 fathoms, low water, spring tides. After deepening across it, the course should be altered to N. by W., or even N. N. W., according to the state of the tide and sea at the time, to avoid the Western Rocks, (above water,) bearing from the light S. W. ½ S., distant nearly half a mile—the flood tide sets in on these rocks. When the light bears E., in 6 to 9 fathoms, on the edge of the flat to the westward, the course must be altered to N. N. E., and N. E. and N. Having brought the light to bear S. E. by S., ½ S., the ship will be inside of Passage Rock, which is 5 to 7 feet above water, and bears the Savage Light N. W. ½ N., distant quarter of a mile, and should then steer N. E. easterly, to avoid the reef projecting from Mosque Point, a mile in extent to the south. Some of the rocks are above water at half ebb. There is a red buoy placed on the southern entrance, in about 9 fathoms, which, with attention, may be seen in a clear night without the moon; and, after bringing Mosque Point to bear N. W. by N. to N. W., the ship should anchor. On Mosque Point, a small light-house is nearly finished, the light of which will be a deep red, and will be seen about 6 miles, or 3 miles beyond the bar, as a leading mark to clear the western rocks, keeping it a little open to the westward of the Savage Light when steering in or out—also, to point out when the ship is inside of the reef off Mosque Point. With this light bearing N. W. by N. to N. W., is good anchorage, having excellent holding ground, and perfectly sheltered from the sea. A stranger should not attempt to run in at night, particularly in the rains, except at high or low water, as the ebb tide runs very rapidly, in strong eddies, off the Passage Rock, over the dangerous flat to the westward, and the flood in strong eddies upon the rocks. During the N. E. Monsoon, ships bound to Akyab, from the northward, should endeavor to make the table land of the Western Bolongo, in latitude 20° 1′ N.; then, steering due east, they will avoid the Oyster Reef, in latitude 20° 5′ N., longitude 92° 40′ E., which is distant from the Savage Light 15 miles, due west. This course is recommended; as, although in favorable weather the Savage Light is seen outside the reef, in 16 or 17 fathoms water, the depth suddenly decreases, and the probability of hazy or rainy weather would prevent the light being seen; and steering boldly in to sight it, to the northward of lat. 20° 1′, would endanger the safety of the vessel, by suddenly falling upon the Oyster Rock or Reef, before sighting the light-house. Strangers are advised not to make use of the channel inside of the Oyster Rock or Reef, on any occasion.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF COMMISSION IN CHINA,

AS REVISED BY THE GENERAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, MARCH, 1838.*

	Per cent.
1. On all sales of opium, cotton, cochineal, camphor baroos, bird's nests, diamonds, and other precious stones, pearls, ships, and houses,	3
2. On sales of all other goods,	5
3. On returns, if in goods,	2½
4. On returns, if in treasure, bullion, or bills,	1
5. On purchases, not being returns for goods sold:—	
1st. Of raw silk,	3
2d. Of manufactured silk,	5
3d. Of all other goods,	5
6. On inspecting teas, whether for returns or otherwise, an additional charge of.	½
7. On sale, purchase, or shipment of bullion,	1
8. On drawing, sale, or negotiation of bills, when not involving responsibility as drawer or endorser,	1
9. On drawing, sale, or negotiation of bills, when guarantied by the agent as drawer or endorser, and not covered by adequate security,	2½
10. On purchasing bills, or effecting remittance by bills, of the agent or otherwise,	1
11. On negotiating loans or respondentia,	2
12. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements,	2½
13. On guaranteeing sales, when specially required, without including responsibility for remittances,	2½
14. On guaranteeing both sales and remittances of proceeds,	1
15. On bills of exchange, returned, noted, or protested,	1
16. On letters of credit for mercantile purposes,	2½
17. On all advances of money for purposes of trade, whether the goods are consigned to the agent or not, and where a commission of 5 per cent is not charged,	2½
18. On ordering goods, or superintending the fulfilment of contracts, where no other commission is derived,	2½
19. On all goods, treasure, &c., consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, or sent to auction, and for goods consigned for conditional delivery to others,	½ com.
20. On procuring freight, or advertising as agents or owners, or commanders, on the amount of freight, whether the same passes through the hands of the agent or not,	5
21. On receiving inward freight,	1
22. On ship's disbursements,	2½
23. On chartering ships for other parties,	2½
24. On effecting insurance, or writing orders for insurance,	½
25. Settling insurance losses, total or partial, and on procuring return of premium,	1
26. Debts, where a process of law or arbitration is necessary, 2½ per cent; and if recovered,	5
27. Collecting house rent,	2½
28. Acting for the estates of persons deceased, as executors or administrators,	5
29. The management of the estates of others, on the amount received,	2½
30. All cash receipts, not serving for the purchase of goods, and not specified above,	1
31. Shroffing,	2 p. mil.
32. Transhipping goods,	1 p. c.
33. All advances not punctually liquidated, the agent to have the option of charging a second commission, as upon a fresh advance, provided the charge does not occur twice in the same year,	1
34. At the option of the agent, on the amount debited or credited within the years, including interest, and excepting only items on which a commission of 5 per cent has been charged,	1

N. B.—This charge not to be applied to paying over a balance due on an account made up to a particular period, unless where such balance is withdrawn without reasonable notice.

* No change in rates has been made since 1838.

RATES OF INSURANCE IN CHINA.

Places from and to which Insurance is made.	Block and Goods.	Treasure and Copp'r.
Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Calcutta, Rangoon, Mauritius, (avoiding the hurricane months,) Australasia,	2½ pr. cent.	2 per cent.
Singapore,	1 "	¼ "
Manilla,	1 "	½ "
Malacca, Penang, or Batavia,	1¼ "	1 "
Great Britain or France—one port,	2½ "	2 "
England, sailing between 20th April and 20th October,	3 "	"
United States of America—one port,	2½ "	2 "
Holland or Hamburgh, Spain or Portugal,	3 "	2½ "
East coast of British North America,	2½ "	2 "
Ports in the river St. Lawrence,	3 "	2½ "
Brazils,	2½ "	2 "
River La Plata,	3½ "	3 "
Windward and Leeward Islands, Berbice, Demerara,	2½ "	2 "
Jamaica and St. Domingo,	3 "	2½ "
Spanish Main, Honduras, Mosquito shore,	4 "	3½ "
Touching at C. of G. Hope, between 1st May and 1st Sept., Touching at Singapore, Manilla, or Java, For every additional port of discharge,	½ "	Additional.
To a port in Chili except Coquimbo, warranted not to arrive on the coast between 20th May and 20th Sept'r,	3 "	2½ "
Do. do., to arrive within those dates,	4½ "	4 "
To Coquimbo and Peru,	3 "	2½ "
For every additional port touched at,	½ "	additional.
To Mexico, and the West Coast of North America,	2½ "	2½ per ct.
From the West Coast of N. and S. America to China, warranted not to leave the coast of Chili, except Coquimbo, between the 20th May and 20th September,	3½ "	2 "
If to leave the coast of Chili, except Coquimbo, between those dates,	4 "	3½ "
To or from the Sandwich Islands,	2½ "	2 "
Risks at Lintin, from 20th October to 20th April,	½ "	monthly.
" " 20th April to 20th October,	½ "	"
On the East Coast of China,	1 "	"
Amoy, in southwest monsoon,	¾ "	"
" in northeast "	1 "	"
Chusan, Ningpo, and Fuchau, in southwest monsoon,	1 "	"
" " " in northeast "	1½ "	"
Shanghai, or entering the Yangtsz' kiang,	1½ "	"
Calling at any of the intermediate ports,	½ "	additional.

BRAZILIAN COMMERCIAL DECREES.

CONSULATE GENERAL OF THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL,
In the United States of America.

The following Imperial decrees of the Brazilian government are published for the use of those whom it may concern:—

DECREE No. 356, OF THE 26TH APRIL, 1844.—*Regulations for a reduction of Anchorage Dues upon vessels carrying emigrants to Brazil.*

CHAP. I.—CHARACTER OF THE EMIGRANTS.

Art. 1. Vessels, in order to be entitled to the benefit of these regulations, must carry to the empire of Brazil emigrants of the following character:—

Sec. 1. Those destitute of means to pay their passage.

Sec. 2. Those who are robust, healthy, and diligent in business.

Sec. 3. Those between the ages of 14 and 21 years, and in equal numbers of either sex.

Art. 2. Government will not deduct the passage of any unmarried girl, when not accompanying her father, or of any woman who is a cabin passenger.

Art. 3. The anchorage dues will also be deducted for the passage of emigrants up to

the age of 50 years, when bringing sons or daughters in such numbers that, counting each child at 4 years, beginning at 21, they shall unitedly possess the age of at least 37 years. These emigrants are permitted to bring, for every three children of the above ages, one under 14, and one over 6 years.

Art. 4. Emigrants should be chosen among servants, husbandmen, blacksmiths, carpenters, and masons.

CHAP. II.—UPON THE AMOUNT DEDUCTED.

Art. 5. Vessels arriving in the ports of the empire with emigrants, the deduction to be made upon the anchorage shall in no case exceed 60 milreis per passenger. The actual reduction shall be fixed by the collector of the custom-house, in view of the documents presented by the captain. Appeals may be made to the treasury department.

Art. 6. When the number of emigrants shall be more than ten, an increase of 1 per cent upon the valuation will take place for each additional ten brought by the vessel; but this increase will never exceed 6 per cent—the captain, in all cases, being obliged to answer, on security, for any difference that the treasury department may find in the valuation or increase.

Art. 7. The commissioners of the board of health, in the ports of the empire, are obliged to examine the state of the health of the emigrants on arrival, and to certify the results of their observations, in order that the deduction may take place, as mentioned in the above articles.

CHAP. III.—PASSPORTS OF THE EMIGRANTS FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Art. 8. Captains or owners of vessels, wishing to avail themselves of the advantages of this regulation, are to communicate to the Brazilian minister, consul, vice-consul, or other agents of colonization for the empire, that they intend to transport emigrants; and said emigrants must make the following declarations:—

Sec. 1. Their name, age, and business.

Sec. 2. That they are thoroughly acquainted with the obligations imposed upon them by this regulation, and required to apply themselves to the particular kind of labor which they have specified as being competent to perform.

Sec. 3. The name and residence of the persons under whom they have been in service, presenting a recommendation of good conduct passed by them.

Sec. 4. To be innocent of crime, and over 17 years of age, unless minors.

Sec. 5. That they had the small-pox, or else have been vaccinated.

Art. 9. The consuls and vice-consuls of the empire, in foreign countries, are authorized to employ physicians to examine the state of the health of the emigrants, expending in this way any sums put at their disposal by the department of home or foreign affairs.

Art. 10. The consuls and vice-consuls will grant to emigrants going to the empire, in conformity with this regulation, gratuitous passports, declaring said conformity, and remitting at the same time, to the home department, all documents collected on the subject, together with a list of the emigrants' names.

CHAP. IV.—GENERAL REGULATIONS.

Art. 11. The consuls and vice-consuls will punctually observe all the items of the present arrangement, except when advised of any modification by the government.

Art. 12. Emigrants going by virtue of these regulations, shall not, in the course of three years—

Sec. 1. Leave the province where they arrive.

Sec. 2. Purchase, lease, let, or acquire the use of lands by any title.

Sec. 3. Establish commercial houses, administer them, become a clerk, or to sell from door to door. The violations of this article will be punished with the penalties imposed by the law of October 11th, 1837, upon those who do not fulfil their contracts.

Art. 13. The government may dispense with the requirement of the above article, when conclusive reason shall be presented by the emigrants.

Art. 14. Captains of vessels may receive from those who employ emigrants, a compensation not to exceed a fifth part of the charge upon the deduction of the anchorage dues made on their account, provided that this compensation shall impose no burden upon said emigrants.

Art. 15. The whole deduction to be made by the government, upon the transportation of emigrants, shall never exceed the amount of charges to which vessels are subject, whatever be the number of emigrants brought.

Art. 16. The consuls and vice-consuls will only send that number of emigrants designated expressly by the government in its order, notwithstanding a larger number may wish to go to the empire, with the advantages of the present regulation.

Art. 17. Presidents of provinces will inform the government, quarterly, of the number of emigrants arrived in conformity with these regulations, the state in which they have arrived, and their behaviour.

Art. 18. The services rendered by the consuls and vice-consuls, in the execution of this regulation, shall be remunerated by the government, according to their importance.

MANUEL ALVES BRANCO.

Rio de Janeiro, April 26, 1844.

DECREE No. 389, OF THE 15TH NOVEMBER, 1844.

Altering the Regulations of 20th July, 1844, in relation to the Anchorage Dues.

Art. 1. Are free of anchorage dues—

Sec. 1. Vessels entering and clearing in ballast.

Sec. 2. Vessels entering on the third and subsequent voyages within a year, having paid on the two previous arrivals the dues established by the decree of July 20th, 1844.

Art. 2. Vessels entering in Franquier, in order to try the market, or receive orders, having discharged or taken no cargo, will pay per ton, daily, the dues established by the laws of November 15, 1831, October 31, 1832, and October 22, 1836.

Art. 3. All regulations to the contrary are revoked. MANUEL ALVES BRANCO.

Rio de Janeiro, November 15, 1844.

LUIS HENRIQUE FERREIRA D'AGUIAR, Consul General.

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

RAILROADS OF NEW YORK, IN 1843–44.

The Secretary of State, pursuant to the resolution of the Assembly, of February 2, 1843, has submitted the second annual report of the several roads in the state to the legislature. The document has not yet been printed, but a gentleman at Albany has furnished us with the tabular statement which follows, carefully copied and compiled from the official manuscript documents. Much care has been taken to compare and verify the various columns, and it may be regarded as strictly correct.

It should be observed that the column showing the nett income of the road, does not, in all cases, express the legitimate earnings of the road. The receipts for the year past include sales of surplus materials, and other extraneous items.

The first seven roads in the table form the continuous line, in the order in which they are placed, from the Hudson to Lake Erie. The average cost per mile, of the whole number of roads, is $30,700. By reference to the cost of construction given in the table, and deducting the cost of the Schenectady and Troy, and the Albany and West Stockbridge roads, from which no revenue is derived, the total cost of the other roads is shown to be $17,197,251, from which are derived the aggregate income of $1,100,016. From this statement results $17,197,251 : $1,100,016 :: 1: ,64 or 6 4-10 per cent on the capital invested.

This is an increase of nearly 1 per cent over the results for the year 1843. The railroads of Massachusetts ranged about the same for that year. The rate per cent of income, on some 2,000 miles of railroads in the United States, as ascertained by Chevalier De Gerstner, in 1839, was very nearly the same. The whole number of miles run on all the roads, is 1,257,529; the cost for running and repairs is $799,752; which gives the average cost per mile, 64 cents.

The West Stockbridge road is run in connection with the Western railroad, forming a continuous line between Greenbush and Worcester. No separate account has been kept of through and way passengers.

The Mohawk and Hudson Railroad Company have an undivided interest with the Utica and Schenectady, Syracuse and Utica, Auburn and Syracuse, and Auburn and Rochester Railroad Companies, in 100 passenger cars, and 28 mail and baggage cars.

The tabular statement, above referred to, will be found on the next page.

In the following table, Column 1 contains the name of road; 2, number of miles of road in operation; 3, cost of construction; 4, expense for repairing and running road; 5, receipts from pass., ft., mail, etc.; 6, excess of rec. over exp.; 7, dividends; 8, rec. from through-pas.; 9, rec. from way do.; 10, tot. income from pass.; 11, inc. from all sources.

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
Mohawk and Hudson,	17	$1,317,892 51	$34,040 69	$217,173 32	$183,131 63	none.	. . .	. . .	$66,293 81	$150,878 51
Utica and Schenectady,	78	2,168,665 00	132,838 41	384,391 59	251,553 18	$160,000 00	$253,017 15	$53,261 60	306,278 75	78,112 84
Syracuse and Utica,	53	1,151,575 98	71,068 81	194 532 32	123,463 51	80,000 00	158,624 56	23,022 78	181,647 34	12,884 93
Auburn and Syracuse,	26	766,656 60	44,193 76	96,737 88	52,544 12	31,547 00	. . .	. . .	80,553 17	16,184 71
Auburn and Rochester,	78	1,796,342 49	85,660 12	237,667 38	152,007 26	105,000 00	136,260 18	78,986 77	215,246 95	22,420 43
Tonawanda,	43	727,331 87	38,311 93	114,177 28	75,865 35	23,333 33	71,307 61	21,331 45	92,639 06	21,538 22
Attica and Buffalo,	31	336,211 37	25,215 10	73,248 14	48,033 04	. . .	. . .	. . .	64,339 97	8,908 17
Saratoga and Schenectady,	22	393,658 06	26,209 03	35,747 64	9,538 61	. . .	18,696 16	9,371 39	28,067 55	7,680 09
Schenectady and Troy,	20½	640,799 60	33,560 81	32,862 59	Def. $698.	none.	29,570 12	1,497 12	31,067 25	1,795 34
Rensselaer and Saratoga,	25	475,801 10	29,530 89	41,931 64	12,400 75	10,500 00	16,899 50	6,739 11	23,638 61	18,293 03
Long Island,	96	1,610,221 00	94,460 47	153,455 83	58,995 36	none.	. . .	. . .	143,300 99	10,154 84
New York and Erie,	53	4,762,434 77	66,945 00	126,020 44	59,075 44	none.	15,572 43	30,606 41	46,178 84	79,841 60
New York and Harlem,	27	1,204,846 00	78,286 11	140,684 90	62,398 79	none.	no acc't.	no acc't.	138,190 04	2,494 86
Albany and W. Stockbr'ge,	38½	1,768,687 95	15,431 68	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
Hudson and Berkshire,	31	575,613 00	24,000 00	35,029 64	11,029 64	. . .	3,035 00	6,053 00	9,088 00	25,941 00
Total,	639½	$19,606,737 30	$799,752 81	$1,883,658 59	$1,100,016 69	. . .	$702,982 71	$230,969 63	$1,426,530 33	$457,128 62

In the following table, Column 1 contains the name of road; 2, No. of through passengers; 3, No. of way passengers; 4, No. miles run by pass. trains; 5, do. by freight trains; 6, No. locomotives; 7, No. pass. cars; 8, No. ft. cars; 9, No. mail and other cars; 10, No. mach. shops; 11, No. horses; 12, av. No. of men employed; 13, expenses, repairs, and running road; 14, receipts for passengers, freight, etc.; 15, excess of receipts over expenses, (the three last columns from reports for 1843.)

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.
Mohawk and Hudson,	132,685	none.	34,112	27,400	6	—	68	34	1	8	93	58,780	170,600	111,820
Utica and Schenectady,	101,215	60,634	126,573	38,333	12	41	70	—	1	3	190	128,850	348,500	219,650
Syracuse and Utica,	82,038	39,708	87,000	20,000	9	—	27	—	1	—	85	66,800	163,700	96,900
Auburn and Syracuse,	80,538	9,716	41,548	7,858	3	—	18	—	—	—	45	34,530	86,300	47,770
Auburn and Rochester,	50,512	70,857	128,696	30,407	10	—	17	—	2	4	136	100,200	189,700	89,500
Tonawanda,	52,962	26,570	49,880	8,200	5	12	52	3	1	4	84	43,610	76,200	32,590
Attica and Buffalo,	64,646	9,303	39,296	7,559	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19,150	45,900	26,750
Saratoga and Schenectady,	14,541	23,424	33,166	——	3	6	10	—	1	4	24	25,810	42,200	16,390
Schenectady and Troy,	60,677	5,409	42,245	——	3	7	19	24	1	none.	27	30,410	28,000	Def. $2,410
Rensselaer and Saratoga,	19,871	18,698	20,090	8,500	2	15	20	—	none.	8	29	22,360	44,300	21,940
Long Island,	130,000	thr. & w.	89,856	28,404	11	22	63	10	2	12	100	No report.	No report.	No report.
New York and Erie,	11,976	68,044	57,302	41,690	5	6	25	4	1	none.	112	"	"	"
New York and Harlem,	no acc.	no acc.	123,616	no acc.	7	34	5	—	1	137	150	"	"	"
Albany and W. Stockb'ge,	. . .	. . .	54,838	76,780	none.	none.	none.	none.	1	none.	none.	"	"	"
Hudson and Berkshire,	3,035	14,367	34,180	P. & frt.	4	4	36	—	1	4	33	"	"	"
Total,	. . .	. . .	962,398	295,131	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .

WESTERN (MASSACHUSETTS) RAILROAD.

The tenth report of the directors of the Western Railroad corporation has been laid before the stockholders, and printed. It presents a very full and satisfactory account of the condition of the road and its finances, at the close of the year 1844. The capital authorized by the original charter, was $2,000,000; and it was increased $1,000,000 by a subsequent act of the legislature of Massachusetts, the state subscribing for that amount —making the chartered capital $3,000,000; one-third owned by the state, and two-thirds by 1,121 private stockholders. The report is quite elaborate in its details; we therefore present, in tabular form, a condensed view of the whole matter—all that is of any practical or commercial value. The following table shows the total expenditures to January 1, 1845:—

TOTAL EXPENDITURES TO JANUARY 1, 1845.

Western Railroad.	Construction.	Engines and cars.	Total.
Prior to January 1, 1844,.....	$5,181,505 95	$576,023 79	$5,757,529 38
In 1844,.....	100,019 04	61,712 53	161,731 57
Total,.....	$5,281,524 99	$637,736 32	$5,919,260 95

Albany and West Stockbridge Railroad.	Construction.	Tot. both roads, to Jan. 1, 1845.
Prior to January 1, 1844,.....	$1,753,530 28	$7,511,059 66
In 1844,.....	13,411 24	175,142 81
Total,.....	$1,766,941 52	$7,686,202 47

The items prior to January 1, 1844, as given in the report of 1844, have been corrected from the books.

We now give a comprehensive comparative yearly statement of the receipts of the road from all sources, its expenses, and sundry statistics of the transportation business, from 1839 to 1844, inclusive:—

COMPARATIVE YEARLY STATEMENT OF SUNDRY STATISTICS OF TRANSPORTATION BUSINESS.

Receipts.

Time.	Passengers.	Merchandise.	Mails, &c.	Total.	Inc. p. c.
3 mos. in 1839,	$13,472 94	$4,136 21	.....	$17,609 15	...
" 1840,	70,820 79	38,359 78	$3,166 82	112,347 39	..
" 1841,	113,841 85	64,467 14	4,000 00	182,308 99	..
" *1842,	266,446 83	226,674 61	19,566 84	512,688 28	..
" 1843,	275,139 64	275,696 19	23,046 68	573,882 51	12
" 1844,	358,694 00	371,131 84	23,926 88	753,752 72	31½

3 mo. in	Expenses.	Incr. p. cent of expenses.	Bal. of receipts.	Miles run.	Expense pr. mile, cts.	Tot. No. of passengers.
1839,	$14,380 64	..	$3,228 51	.....	.....	.....
1840,	62,071 72	..	50,275 67	$94,404	71 19-100	.....
1841,	†132,501 45	..	49,807 54	160,106	65 46-100	.....
1842,*	266,619 30	..	246,068 98	397,295	67	190,436½
1843,	303,973 06	14	269,909 45	441,608½	64½	200,965½
1844,	314,074 20	3½	439,678 52	499,968	63 4-100	220,257½

From 1842 to 1843, the increase of receipts from passengers was 3½ per cent; do. from merchandise, 21½ per cent. From 1843 to 1844, the increase of receipts from passengers was 30¼ per cent; do. from merchandise, 34½ per cent.

By reference to the tables of each year, it will be seen that the number of through-passengers is stated in 1844 less than in 1843. This is mainly owing to the fact that, in the greater part of 1843, the difference between the through and way fare was so great, that way-passengers, to a considerable extent, took through-tickets, and were thus registered as through-passengers. There was no inducement for such a practice in 1844. The whole number of tons, nett, carried one mile by the merchandise trains, was—

* First year of opening through to Albany.

† As corrected in report of January, 1843, to include damages for collision of 1841.

In 1844,.....	11,166,704
1843,.....	9,414,621
Increase,.....	1,752,083

The whole tonnage is equal to 71,581 tons carried over the whole length of the road, 156 miles. The number of miles run by merchandise trains in 1844 being 255,376, is equal to 1,637 trips through, averaging 43¾ tons each train. The through freight from Boston to Albany, in 1843, was 5,268 tons; in 1844, 6,764—increase, 1,496. The amount of freight received at and sent from Boston, in connection with the Western road, was—In 1844, 69,842 tons; in 1843, 56,376 tons; increase, 13,474 tons.

The number of barrels of flour, from Greenbush and vicinity, to Boston, was—

In 1844,.....	154,413	
1843,.....	123,366	31,074

The whole number of barrels of flour sent from Greenbush to all stations, was, in 1844, 297,403. The amount charged on all merchandise forwarded eastward, from the Greenbush station, was—In 1844, $223,572; in 1843, $167,087; increase, $56,485.

The amount charged on merchandise forwarded from Greenbush eastward, in the month of January, for three years, was—In 1843, $6,622; 1844, $13,677; 1845, $20,216.

BOSTON AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The following table, derived from the report of the directors of the Boston and Worcester railroad, exhibits a comprehensive view of the amount of business done, during the year ending on the 30th of November, 1844, in the several departments, together with the earnings, expenses, and nett income. The statement shows not only the aggregate of business and profits in the several departments, but distinguishes under separate heads the joint business with the Western road, and that with the Norwich and Worcester road, from the local business of the Boston and Worcester road, so as to show the extent of the business, and amount of income of each branch.

STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING NOVEMBER 30, 1844.

	B. and W. road alone.	To and from W'n railr'd.	To and from N. & W. r'ld.	Total.
	Freight.			
Tons carried one mile,.....	1,381,128	3,201,444	441,298	5,023,870
Earnings,.....	$90,833	$83,802	$24,135	$198,820
Expenses,.....	32,525	75,408	10,393	118,326
Nett income earned,.....	$58,358	$8,394	$13,742	$80,494
	Passengers.			
Passengers carried one mile,...	4,421,497	2,535,749	1,847,941	8,805,187
Equal to through,.....	100,488	57,631	41,101	199,220
Receipts,.....	$134,839	$59,250	$40,545	$234,634
Expenses,.....	58,347	33,463	23,866	115,676
Nett passenger income,...	$76,492	$25,787	$16,679	$118,958
Mail, rent, &c.,.....	.....	.....	.....	8,739
Gross income and earnings,.....	$235,722	$143,052	$64,680	$442,193
Total expenses,.....	90,872	108,871	34,259	234,002
Total nett income,.....	$134,850	$34,181	$30,421	$208,191

The earnings on freight are given above, and not the receipts on freight.

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

(COMPILED FROM ANNUAL REPORTS TO THE LEGISLATURE.)

The annexed table of the length, cost, receipts, expenditures, &c., &c., of the railroads in Massachusetts, is compiled for the Merchants' Magazine, from annual reports to the Legislature of Massachusetts.

Deducting the cost of the Fitchburg railroad, which was only open to Acton, 27 miles, on the 1st October, 1844, the nett income was 7 11-100ths per cent upon their cost.

Name.	Length in miles.	Cost.	Rec. from pass'rs, in 1844.	Rec. from m'rchandise, mail, &c., &c., in 1844.	Total rec. in 1844.	Expenses.	Nett income.	No. mls. run by pass'ger trains in 1844.	No. m. run by mdze. and other trains, in '44.	Tot. No. of miles run in 1844.	Total rec'pts p. mile run in 1844.	Exp. p. mile run in 1844.	Nett income p. mile run in 1844.
Worcester,.....	44	$2,914,078	$234,634	$193,803	$428,437	$233,273	$195,164	140,900	79,723	220,623	$1 94	$1 05	$0 89
Western,.....	156	7,686,202	358,694	395,058	753,752	314,074	439,678	212,893	287,075	499,968	1 51	0 62	0 89
Norwich & Wor.,	68	2,170,365	135,655	89,853	225,508	75,054	150,454	113,319	44,949	158,268	1 43	0 47	0 96
Berkshire,*	21	250,000	.....	.....	17,737	.....	17,737	13,240	14,405	27,645	.....	.....	.....
Providence,.....	42	1,886,134	189,657	94,044	283,701	113,834	169,867	102,764	34,728	137,492	2 06	0 82	1 24
Taunton,.....	11	250,000	22,525	27,580	50,105	24,945	25,160	13,944	7,626	21,570	2 32	1 15	1 17
New Bedford,.....	21	430,961	46,744	18,253	64,997	24,180	40,817	26,880	13,516	40,396	1 60	0 59	1 01
Lowell,.....	26	1,800,000	165,284	151,625	316,909	169,293	147,616	100,243	64,331	164,574	1 92	1 03	0 89
Nashua,.....	14	380,000	47,165	47,422	94,587	59,643	34,944	28,875	13,475	42,350	2 23	1 40	0 83
Boston and Maine,	55	1,485,460	120,180	59,954	180,134	84,069	96,065	132,300	35,796	168,096	1 07	0 50	0 57
Eastern,.....	55	2,388,044	293,762	43,476	337,238	109,318	227,920	158,790	46,172	204,962	1 64	0 53	1 11
Charlest'n Branch,	6	280,259	7,787	26,866	34,653	20,683	13,970	8,771	19,155	27,926	1 24	0 74	0 50
Fitchburg,†.....	49	1,150,000	22,447	20,312	42,759	15,924	26,835	27,600	27,724	55,324	0 78	0 28	0 50
Total,.....	568	$23,071,503	$1,644,534	$1,168,246	$2,830,517	$1,244,290	$1,586,227	1,080,519	688,675	1,769,194	‡$1 60	‡$0 70	‡$0 90

* Let to Housatonic Railroad. † Open to Acton, 27 miles, October 1st, 1844. ‡ Average.

EASTERN RAILROAD.

The Portland, Saco, (Me.,) and Portsmouth (N. H.) railroad company, was incorporated March 14, 1837; organized December 25, 1840; renewed November 25, 1845. It is 51 miles long, connects with the Eastern by a bridge over the Piscataqua river, at Portsmouth, and with Boston and Maine at South Berwick, 13 miles east of Portsmouth. For the year ending November 30, 1843, it divided 3½ per cent; and for the past year, 6 per cent. Its cost is not definitely settled, but will amount to about $1,200,000—a little over $23,000 per mile. It is laid with a T rail, 56 pounds to the yard—highest grades, 35 feet per mile. Passes through the towns of Keeting, Elliot, South Berwick, North Berwick, Wells, Kennebunk, Saco, Scarborough, to Portland.

Years.	Gross income.	Nett income.
1843,.....	$89,997 08	$47,165 98
1844,.....	124,497 39	74,841 25

The number of miles run being severally 102,036 and 117,008, and the expenditures 47 cents and 42½ cents per mile run.

The Eastern railroad, extending from Boston to Portsmouth, N. H., 54 miles, was partially opened August 28, 1838, and for the whole distance Nov. 9, 1840, and has also a branch of 3 miles, to Marblehead.

Gross income for 1844,.....		$337,238 46
Current expenses, 53 341-1000 per mile run,.....		109,318 86
From the road, nett income,.....		$227,919 60
From rents, &c., "		6,661 14
Total,.....		$234,580 74
Interest to state on $500,000 loan,.....	$25,000 00	
Dividend in July,.....	79,887 50	
" January,.....	91,300 00	
		$196,187 50
		$38,393 24
Sales of property over costs,.....		9,344 57
Surplus of 1844,.....		$47,737 81
Surplus previously,.....		39,310 30
Total surplus,.....		$87,048 11

Number of miles run, 204,962; number of passengers, 544,994; average cost of carrying a passenger one mile, 1.166 cents; receipt from each company per mile, 3.351 cents.

BUSINESS OF THE MICHIGAN RAILROAD.

During the past year, this road has been opened 32 miles, from Jackson to Marshall, a distance of 110 miles from Detroit. The road from Marshall to Kalamazoo, 68 miles, will be opened in August, 1845. The profit of $121,750, for last year's business, was expended in iron, and materials for the extension. The Palmyra and Jacksonburg railroad was bought in by the state for $22,000, under the foreclosure of the $20,000 loaned it by the state. The receipts on the Southern railroad, for the year, were $60,340. The law of 1843 pledged so much of the nett proceeds of these roads, after paying for the iron on the Central road to Marshall, and the Southern to Hillsdale, as would be necessary to meet the interest on the internal improvement warrants.

As the state of Michigan proposes to sell its interest in railroads, and cancel its debt contracted therefor, the following table affords good data for a calculation of their value:—

BUSINESS OF THE MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD.

Years.	No. Passengers.	Tons Goods.	Produce.	Ashes.	Bbls. flour.
1838,.....	29,307	9,937,785	.....	.....	15,543
1839,.....	26,804	8,020,087	523,688	.....	25,021
1840,.....	25,165	5,177,947	378,582	.....	43,371
1841,.....	25,418	8,743,261	2,614,808	.....	63,401
1842,.....	30,640	6,765,270	2,343,348	556,578	107,777
1843,.....	30,643	8,929,688	1,920,823	1,081,267	137,575
1844,.....	52,241	10,089,056	4,480,334	1,094,222	144,234

Years.	Passengers.	Mdze.	Flour.	Total.	Exports.	Nett pro.
1838,.....	$39,454	$20,149	$3,928	$82,917	$45,633	$37,283
1839,.....	36,623	15,359	6,213	61,154	44,451	16,703
1840,.....	32,269	11,874	10,468	61,609	40,972	20,637
1841,.....	33,743	14,491	14,826	71,249	45,594	25,655
1842,.....	59,715	19,572	37,970	136,895	73,819	63,075
1843,.....	52,698	26,012	46,288	149,985	74,960	75,026
1844,.....	83,551	33,255	57,933	211,169	89,419	121,750
Total,..	$338,053	$140,712	$177,626	$774,978	$414,848	$360,129

RAILROAD FREIGHTS ON THE LINE OF THE ERIE CANAL.

By act chapter 335 of the laws of New York, 1844, the Utica and Schenectady railroad was authorized, on the payment of canal tolls, to carry freight during the suspension of canal navigation. The quantity and weight of articles received by said road from the Utica and Syracuse road, the quantity and tons shipped on said road between Utica and Schenectady, and the quantity and tons delivered at Albany, taken from the returns made by the Utica and Schenectady road to the canal department, from the close of navigation to the 1st February, instant, a period of sixty-five-days, are as follows:—

NOTE.—Columns 1 and 2 show the quantity and tonnage received by Utica and Schenectady, from Utica and Syracuse railroad, at Utica; 3 and 4, the quantity and tonnage shipped on the Utica and Schenectady railroad, between Utica and Schenectady; 5 and 6, the quantity and tonnage delivered at Albany.

Articles.	Quantity.	Tons.	Quantity.	Tons.	Quantity.	Tons.
Fur and peltry,.....lbs.	51,742	25	1,511	1	52,072	26
Boards and scantling,...ft.	.....	...	10,980	18	10,980	18
Ashes,.....bbls.	38	10	131	33	169	43
Pork,.....	4	1	158	24	162	25
Beef,.....	142	21	707	108	849	129
Cheese,.....lbs.	30,620	15	216,343	108	246,963	123
Butter,.....	119,242	60	275,560	137	394,802	197
Lard,.....	1,029	1	3,205	1	4,234	2
Wool,.....	67,382	34	.....	...	58,713	29
Pork, (in the hog,).....	147,536	74	229,534	115	377,070	189
Poultry,.....	84,879	42	143.366	72	228,245	114
Flour,.....bbls.	716	77	1,519	163	2,235	240
Barley,.....bush.	.....	...	87	2	87	2
Other grain,.....	.....	...	1,493	34	1,493	34
Bran and ship-stuff,.....	.....	...	2,042	20	2,042	20
Peas and beans,.....	93	3	478	14	571	17
Potatoes,.....	.....	...	3	...	3	....
Dried fruit,.....lbs.	6,933	3	19,001	9	23,630	12
Tobacco,.....	170	...	745	...	915	...
Clover and grass seed,....	131,869	66	5,776	3	139,645	69
Hops,.....	.....	...	8,541	4	8,541	4
Domestic spirits,. ....galls.	19,840	99	72,560	363	92,400	462
Leather,.....lbs.	12,419	6	157,037	79	169,456	85
Furniture,.....	17,957	9	11,670	6	29,627	15
Paper,.....	5,761	3	15,955	8	21,554	11
Iron-ware,.....	3,392	2	13,670	7	17,062	9
Domestic woollens,.....	56,640	28	90,527	45	147,167	73
" cottons,.....	31,333	16	183,190	91	214,523	107
Merchandise,.....	301	...	12,905	6	13,206	6
Sundries,.....	130,598	65	85,793	43	216,391	108

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We stated, in a previous number of this Magazine, that the commercial year had been changed by act of Congress, so that it now begins on the 1st of July, and closes on the 30th of June. The report of the Secretary of the Treasury, on the commerce and navigation of the United States, for the year ending 30th of June, 1844, was laid before both Houses at the close of the last session of Congress, but has not yet been printed. In the absence of the printed report, which will not probably appear before August or September of the present year, we give below an abstract of the same, made from the manuscript document, by Mr. Hart, one of the editors of the "Constitution," at Washington:—

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1844.

Products of the sea—Fish, oil, whalebone, and sperm candles,	$3,350,501
Of the forest—Skins, furs, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, naval stores, &c.,	5,808,712
Of animals—Meats, hides, butter, cheese, cattle, &c.,	6,149,379
Vegetable food—Grain, fruits, biscuit, &c., (except flour,)	10,529,328
Flour,	6,759,488
Tobacco,	8,397,255
Cotton,	54,063,501
Manufactures—Cotton piece goods,	2,898,780
" Soap and candles,	619,544
" Snuff and tobacco,	536,600
" Lead,	595,238
Total,	$99,708,326
Value of exports of foreign merchandise,	11,527,248

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1844.

Free of duty,	$24,766,881	Specific duties,	$31,352,863
Ad valorem duties,	52,351,291	Total,	108,710,935

NUMBER OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS WHICH CLEARED FROM PORTS IN THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1844.

			Crews.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Boys.
American,	8,343	2,010,924	99,300	3,108
Foreign,	5,500	906,814	55,075	964
Total,	13,843	2,917,738	154,375	4,072
Of which, to—				
Cuba,	1,296	232,206	10,827	161
England,	897	504,329	17,553	244
British West Indies,	1,031	150,355	7,609	190
Canada,	4,566	978,229	67,448	2,848
Brazil,	233	48,066	2,296	41

VESSELS WHICH ENTERED IN THE PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE SAME PERIOD.

			Crews.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Boys.
American,	8,148	1,977,438	97,459	3,491
Foreign,	5,577	916,992	55,848	1,004
Total,	13,725	2,894,430	153,307	4,425
Of the foreign vessels which entered, were—				
British,	5,030	766,747	49,168	956
Hanseatic,	155	52,669	2,339	19
Swedish,	110	34,706	1,353	4
French,	55	17,257	760	10

Of the exports and imports from the various states, we enumerate the following:—

States.	Exports.	Imports.	Vessels.
Maine,	$1,176,135	$570,824	1,257
Massachusetts,	9,096,286	20,296,007	2,356
New York,	32,861,540	65,079,516	5,791
Pennsylvania,	3,535,256	7,217,267	453
Maryland,	5,133,166	3,917,750	457
Virginia,	2,942,279	267,654	236
South Carolina,	7,433,282	1,131,525	397
Georgia,	4,283,805	305,634	168
Alabama,	9,907,654	442,818	220
Louisiana,	30,498,307	7,826,789	1,001

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Quantity and Value of the Agricultural Products of the United States, in 1843 *and* 1844. *Also, the Value of Agricultural Products exported to Foreign Countries.*

	1843.			1844.		
	Quantity.	Price.	Value.	Quantity.	Price.	Value.
Wheat, bush.	100,310,856	95c.	$95,295,313	95,607,000	90c.	$86,046,309
Barley,	3,220,721	50c.	1,610,360	3,627,000	56c.	2,031,120
Oats,	145,989,966	30c.	43,778,990	172,247,000	30c.	51,604,100
Rye,	24,280,272	68c.	15,710,583	26,450,000	68c.	17,986,000
Buckwheat,	7,959,410	50c.	3,979,705	9,071,000	93c.	4,807,630
Indian corn,	494,618,306	50c.	276,986,251	421,953,000	50c.	210,975,500
Potatoes,	105,756,133	50c.	52,878,067	99,493,000	50c.	49,746,500
Hay, tons	15,419,807	$10	154,198,070	17,715,000	$12	212,580,000
Flax & hemp, lbs.	16,100,700	9c.	1,449,063	22,800,000	10c.	2,280,000
Tobacco,	185,731,554	4c.	7,429,262	151,705,000	4½c.	6,826,725
Cotton,	747,660,090	7c.	52,236,206	872,107,000	5½c.	47,965,885
Rice,	89,879,145	3c.	2,696,374	311,759,090	2c.	3,352,770
Silk,	315,965	$4	1,263,860	396,790	$3¼	489,962
Sugar,	126,400,310	6c.	7,584,018	201,107,000	6½c.	13,071,955
Total value,			$717,096,122			$709,764,456
Value exported,			74,867,171			*75,000,000
Consumption and surplus,			$642,228,951			$634,764,456
Population,			19,183,583			19,502,197

INTERNAL COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.

We give, below, several tables, prepared at the canal department of the state of New York, for the Legislative Manual, or "Red Book," recently published at Albany. They exhibit the quantity (in tons) of merchandise and other property shipped and received at Buffalo, Black Rock, Oswego, &c., for a series of years, from 1836 to 1844, inclusive.

A Statement of the Tons and Different Classes of Property coming from other States, and shipped at Buffalo, Black Rock, and Oswego, during last 9 *years, is as follows:—*

Tons of Property coming from other States, via Buffalo and Black Rock.

Years.	Prod. of forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Oth. articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1836,	3,755	31,761	641	116	36,273
1837,	7,104	34,196	454	475	42,229
1838,	4,615	62,568	489	515	68,187
1839,	22,835	66,640	801	438	90,723
1840,	18,133	105,251	1,200	955	125,530
1841,	35,126	139,180	3,696	1,535	179,537
1842,	26,229	148,798	2,632	1,778	179,437
1843,	31,211	172,258	2,026	2,751	208,246
1844,	52,061	168,983	722	2,777	224,543

* Estimated.

			Via Oswego.		
1836,.....	1,645	4,708	13	49	6,415
1837,.....	533	5,929	17	126	6,605
1838,.....	4,616	3,132	11	15	7,774
1839,.....	5,809	4,567	...	419	10,795
1840,..... ...	3,108	3,319	67	85	6,579
1841,.....	10,272	3,606	6	104	13,988
1842,.....	4,840	4,277	27	73	9,217
1843,.....	5,664	12,207	51	118	17,940
1844,.....	16,027	21,249	131	152	37,559

Tons of Wheat and Flour shipped at Buffalo and Oswego, from the year 1835 *to* 1844, *and at Black Rock from* 1839 *to* 1844, *inclusive, and the total tons of Wheat and Flour which arrived at the Hudson river, were as follows:—*

Years.	Buffalo. *Tons.*	B. Rock. *Tons.*	Oswego. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*	Tot'l tons arriv'd at tide-wat.
1835,.....	15,935	.....	14,888	30,823	128,552
1836,.....	24,154	.....	13,951	37,745	124,982
1837,.....	27,206	.....	7,429	34,635	116,491
1838,.....	57,977	.....	10,010	67,987	133,080
1839,.....	60,082	7,697	15,108	82,887	124,683
1840,.....	95,573	12,825	15,075	123,473	244,862
1841,.....	106,271	24,843	16,677	147,791	201,360
1842,.....	107,522	13,035	14,338	134,895	198,231
1843,.....	146,126	12,882	25,858	184,866	248,780
1844,.....	145,510	15,669	42,293	203,472	277,803

Tons of Merchandise going to other States by way of Buffalo, from 1837 *to* 1844, *inclusive.*

States.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Pennsylvania,...	1,151	1,446	1,029	827	539	763	725
Ohio,.....	15,187	14,338	9,445	14,297	10,038	14,528	12,370
Michigan,.....	10,084	6,656	4,294	5,456	4,915	8,252	9,389
Indiana,.....	1,569	2,296	751	1,087	785	2,256	2,332
Illinois,.....	3,244	3,634	2,353	2,249	2,490	3,476	4,320
Wisconsin,.....	392	651	662	1,029	1,410	2,890	3,272
Kentucky,.....	335	654	241	495	295	428	205
Missouri,.....	77	24	2	51	14	65	14
Tennessee,.....	26	...	14	26	6	35	13
Alabama,.....	...	...	...	...	...	2	...
Iowa,.....	...	...	...	13	4	28	7
Canada,.....	21	...	49	21	29	75	100
Via Oswego,.	32,086	29,699	18,840	25,551	20,525	32,978	32,747
States not spec'd,	2,542	4,498	3,192	5,489	3,538	4,537	9,648
Totals,.....	34,628	34,197	22,032	31,040	24,063	37,515	42,395

Tons of Furniture going to other States by way of Buffalo, from 1838 *to* 1844, *inclusive.*

States, &c.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Pennsylvania,...	54	25	38	28	28	26	26
Ohio,.....	1,096	785	671	377	619	692	575
Michigan,.....	1,339	776	422	258	618	746	992
Indiana,.....	132	56	38	29	42	126	186
Illinois,.....	699	392	216	168	429	638	797
Wisconsin,.....	150	141	154	161	575	1,315	1,576
Kentucky,.....	11	9	2	3	1	6	.....
Missouri,.....	13	4	11	4	7	3	2
Tennessee,.....	1	...	...	...	1	2	...
Iowa,.....	...	..	..	..	3	12	13
Canada,.....	5	..	23	19	49	47	23
Total,.....	3,500	2,188	1,605	1,047	2,372	3,613	4,190

SHIPPING OF THE UNITED STATES.

A Statement of the Tonnage of the Shipping belonging to the United States, distinguishing the branches of trade in which the same was employed, in each year, from 1790 *to* 1842.

	Reg. Tonnage.		Enrolled Tonnage.		Lic. Vess. und. 20 Tons.		
Years.	Foreign trade.	Coasting trade.	Whale fishery.	Cod fishery.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Total.
1790,	346,254	103,775	....*	28,348	.....	.....	478,377
1791,	363,110	106,494	....*	32,542	.....	.....	502,146
1792,	411,438	120,957	....*	32,060	.....	.....	564,437
1793,	367,734	114,853	.....	38,177	7,217	11,985	491,780
1794,	438,862	167,227	4,139	23,121	16,977	5,549	628,816
1795,	529,470	164,795	3,162	24,887	19,601	6,046	747,963
1796,	576,733	195,423	2,363	28,509	22,416	6,453	831,900
1797,	597,777	214,077	1,103	33,406	20,325	7,222	876,912
1798,	603,376	227,343	763	35,476	24,099	7,269	898,328
1799,	669,197	220,904	592	23,932	25,736	6,046	946,408
1800,	669,921	245,295	651	32,306	27,196	7,120	972,492
1801,	718,549	246,255	736	31,279	28,296	8,101	1,033,218
1802,	560,380	260,543	580	32,987	29,079	8,533	892,101
1803,	597,157	268,676	1,142	43,416	30,384	8,396	949,147
1804,	672,530	286,840	323	43,088	30,696	8,925	1,042,403
1805,	749,341	301,366	898	48,479	31,296	8,986	1,140,368
1806,	808,284	309,977	728	50,353	30,562	8,829	1,208,735
1807,	848,306	318,189	907	60,689	30,838	8,616	1,268,548
1808,	769,053	387,684	724	43,597	33,135	8,400	1,242,595
1809,	910,059	371,500	573	26,109	33,661	8,376	1,350,281
1810,	984,269	371,114	339	26,250	34,232	8,577	1,424,783
1811,	768,852	386,258	54	34,360	34,103	8,872	1,232,502
1812,	760,624	443,180	941	21,822	34,790	8,636	1,269,997
1813,	674,853	433,404	788	12,255	37,703	8,622	1,166,628
1814,	674,632	425,713	561	8,863	40,443	8,922	1,159,208
1815,	854,294	435,066	1,229	26,510	40,598	10,427	1,368,127
1816,	800,759	479,979	1,168	37,879	42,185	10,246	1,372,218
1817,	809,724	481,457	349	53,990	43,571	10,816	1,399,911
1818,	606,088	503,140	614	58,551	46,233	10,555	†1,225,184
1819,	612,930	523,556	686	65,044	47,502	11,031	1,266,751
1820,	619,047	539,080	1,053	60,642	48,944	11,197	1,280,166
1821,	619,896	559,435	1,924	51,351	55,408	10,941	1,298,958
1822,	628,150	573,080	3,133	58,405	51,108	10,820	1,324,699
1823,	639,920	566,408	585	67,040	51,396	11,213	1,336,565
1824,	669,972	589,223	180	68,238	52,340	9,208	1,389,163
1825,	700,788	587,273	.....	70,626	53,588	10,836	1,423,111
1826,	737,978	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,534,190
1827,	747,170	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,620,607
1828,	812,619	787,224	180	74,765	55,680	19,921	1,741,391
1829,	650,142	490,468	.....	97,888	18,390	3,907	†1,260,977
1830,	576,475	496,639	792	95,014	20,338	3,515	1,191,776
1831,	620,451	516,086	481	103,449	23,637	3,739	1,267,846
1832,	686,989	624,159	377	99,152	25,468	3,302	1,439,450
1833,	750,026	717,422	478	107,294	26,776	4,151	1,606,149
1834,	857,438	755,462	364	113,555	28,156	3,930	1,758,907
1835,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1836,	897,774	846,116	1,573	58,413	26,906	4,893	1,882,102
1837,	810,447	927,249	1,894	75,054	29,730	5,497	1,896,685
1838,	822,591	1,008,146	5,229	63,973	32,958	6,090	1,995,639
1839,	834,244	1,120,310	439	65,157	33,241	7,091	2,096,478
1840,	899,764	1,144,664	.....	67,926	32,030	8,109	2,180,764
1841,	945,803	1,076,036	.....	60,556	31,031	5,995	2,130,744
1842,	975,358	1,018,253	377	49,941	27,500	4,862	2,092,390
1843,	1,009,305	1,048,208	142	54,901	27,947	54,901	2,158,602

* Included with the tonnage in the cod fisheries.

† These variations were caused by corrections made at these two periods in the register, the tonnage, lost, and sold, not having been annually deducted until the year 1829.

so doing, sustained confidence, and encouraged new credits. Of late years, however, it has come to be generally acknowledged that these credits operate injuriously in the end; inasmuch as that they foster and sustain an unhealthy state of business. This idea seems to prevail both in England and the United States. In England, it has led to the positive prohibition of a *credit* paper currency, that shall fluctuate in its amount. By a "*credit*" paper currency, we mean those promissory notes of the bank, purporting to be payable on demand, in gold and silver, and which are known to be issued in excess of the ability to make good the payments. After an experiment of one hundred and fifty years, the English government have restricted the bank issues to an equivalent for the gold and silver they may have on hand. In very many of the United States, banking has ceased to exist; and, by the gradual operation of the New York laws, it will, in the course of time, become greatly curtailed in this state. There are, in New York, eighty-five incorporated banks, and seventy free banks, under the new law. Much the largest portion of the banking business is done by the former banks; but, as their charters expire, they are required to wind up, or to go on with their business under the new law, by giving security for their circulating notes. This latter provision seems to exercise a great influence in keeping down the circulation. The free banks have been in operation since 1838; and, as yet, furnish but 25 per cent of the circulation within the state. The want of a currency at the west, which has been severely felt, during the transition from a paper to a metallic currency, has, in Ohio, produced a new law, authorizing the business of banking. It would seem, however, that the projectors of that law were aware that the New York system affords but a very limited scope to the extension of paper issues—a law has therefore been passed, which permits two plans of banking. One plan is, briefly, for not less than seven banks, composed of not less than five persons each, to organize themselves as branches, with a capital not less than $100,000, of a "State bank," composed of one delegate from each bank—this body to be a "board of control," and be incorporated with that name; this board to issue circulating notes to the branches, upon a deposit of 10 per cent of the amount of circulation, in Ohio stock or money, to constitute a safety fund, out of which the notes of any broken bank shall be redeemed—30 per cent of the capital to be paid up before commencing business. No particular restrictions are imposed upon the general banking business. The other plan allowed by the law, is intended to resemble the New York free banking law. It allows a number of persons, not less than five, to constitute a bank, with a capital not less than $50,000—30 per cent to be paid up, and an equal amount, in Ohio 6's, or United States stock, to be deposited with the state treasurer, who shall issue to them a sum equivalent, in circulating notes. It is obvious that, while such superior privileges are allowed to the state branches, this latter part of the law will not be availed of to any considerable extent, and that considerable issues will take place under the "state branches." The object of the law was, to furnish a safe and convenient currency, on the plan of the New York free law. This end will not be accomplished under the new act. The New York laws do not authorize two plans of banking, although they tolerate the chartered banks as long as their charters run. Notwithstanding that these latter are restricted as to their line of discounts, and the free banks are not, yet the charters offer so many greater inducements over the free banking law, that none of them would voluntarily come under the latter. The Ohio law gives a choice, and its free banking provisions must consequently remain a dead letter. As we have said, the object of these laws seems not to promote a healthy banking business, but to "furnish a currency," which, it is supposed, will facilitate business. A great reduction has taken place in bank credits in that state, the effect of which is traced as follows:—

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

The Twenty-Fourth Annual Report of the Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association of New York, has been printed. The last annual report exhibited an excess of the former over the latter year of 315, and that of the previous year a loss of 144 members. The last annual report stated the number of paying members to be 2,001. The number of withdrawals, and accounts closed in 1844, was 497—the additions, in the same period, were 367; leaving the total number of members, at the time of closing the report, in January, 1845, 1,817. Of these, there are members paying annually $2, 1,817; 74 merchants and others, paying annually $5. The number of honorary members elected since the foundation of the institution, is 162. Of these, there are deceased 45; leaving the present number 117. The stockholders of Clinton Hall Association (292) enjoy the privileges of the library, as a grateful acknowledgment of their liberality in erecting that building for the benefit of the association. The number of merchants' clerks in the city of New York, probably exceeds 10,000; and yet, less than 2,000 avail themselves of the unrivalled advantages of this noble institution. This certainly does not speak as well for the intelligence of "Young New York," as its friends could reasonably desire; especially as it requires but the trifling annual sum of two dollars, to enjoy all its privileges. We should consider it an important item in the credentials of character, in a young man applying to us for a clerkship, to know that he was a member of the Mercantile Library Association. It seems, by the report, that the efforts made by the association to increase the number of members, have not proved permanently successful; and the directors have become impressed with the belief that they have less to fear from the want of additions, than from the withdrawal of members. They very justly urge it upon those chosen to succeed them in the administration of the affairs of the association, to make it the chief object of their attention to gratify the wishes, as far as may be ascertained, of those who are already participants in its benefits; and, at the same time, it is to be hoped that every member will feel more sensibly that, though his inclinations may not lead him to avail himself, to any great degree, of the advantages of membership, yet it rests upon him as a duty, as it should be his pride, to contribute to the support and advancement of an institution so worthy of his most hearty and zealous attachment.

The library exhibits a gratifying increase in the number of its volumes. At the close of 1843, it contained 20,567. There have been added, since, by purchase, 671; and by donations, 74; making the total number of volumes, at the present time, 21,312—besides which, there have been purchased, to complete deficient sets, 305; making the total purchases 976 volumes. It appears, from the treasurer's report, that the receipts of the past year have been $4,204 25, and the expenditures $3,787 47; leaving a balance in the hands of the treasurer, of $415 78. The institution is represented as entirely free from debt, and with a balance on hand. By an extract from the constitution, appended to the report, (and we give it for the information of those desirous of becoming members,) it appears that any person engaged in mercantile pursuits as a clerk, may become a member, if approved by the board of directors, by subscribing to the constitution, and paying an initiation fee of $1, and $1 for the first six months. His farther regular dues are fifty cents quarterly, in advance. Merchants may become members, by paying $5 annually. No merchant, however, is entitled to a vote, or eligible to any office. Persons not engaged in mercantile pursuits, are admitted to the use of the library and reading-room upon the same terms as merchants.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF MONTREAL.

The directors of this association have favored us with their fourth annual report, a neat pamphlet of forty-eight pages, embracing the address introductory to the winter course of lectures, by the Rev. G. F. Simpson, A. M., Rector of the High School at Montreal. The report is a well-written, business-like document, and furnishes evidence of the excellent management, and progressive prosperity of the association. A more general determination appears to exist among the members to profit by the various means of self-improvement which the institution places within their reach. The library and reading-room are supplied with the leading periodicals of Great Britain, and a few from the United States.* The library contains 3,044 volumes, 741 of which are in the French language. The librarian's books show a list of 300 readers since the 1st of January, 1844, and of 2,135 volumes issued, besides upwards of 200 magazines and reviews—349 volumes more were taken during the last twelve months than in the preceding, which is considered a satisfactory proof of the increasing taste among the commercial class of Montreal for literary studies. The lecture department of the association is represented as creating the most general interest among the members, as its benefits are participated in by a large and interesting class, (the ladies, we presume,) who can only profit by the other branches through the medium of others.

Since the first establishment of this association, say the directors, every endeavor has been made to induce our fellow-citizens of French origin to join the institution, and participate in its benefits, but with very little success. In order to accomplish so desirable an object, the directors propose securing one or more lecturers in the French language. The board earnestly entreat the co-operation of their French Canadian brethren, assuring them that the following extract from a former report accurately conveys the principle by which the members of the association have ever been actuated, and on which all their proceedings have been based:—"Let us all, whatever be our creed, our country, or our descent, assist each other, heart and hand, in the search after knowledge. Let all spirit of nationality, or of party, be laid aside; and our only emulation be, who shall outstrip the other in the race of moral and intellectual improvement." A truly catholic sentiment, worthy of the liberal and enlightened spirit of the age. The present list of members is nearly four hundred—more, in proportion to the population, than our New York Mercantile Library Association now numbers. The treasurer's report exhibits the finances of the association in a satisfactory condition. The following are the names of the officers elected for 1845:—Theodore Lyman, President; W. C. Evans, Vice-President; H. E. Montgomerie, Corresponding Secretary; S. L. Taylor, Recording Secretary; George Bent, Treasurer; J. H. Winn, Peter Nicol, John Murray, Charles Freeland, Donald Fraser, G. H. Frothingham, T. P. Roe, Henry Pratt, T. D. Hall, J. J. Mackenzie, Directors.

MERCANTILE INTEGRITY.

Two dry goods merchants, one in Cedar and the other in Chatham street, both of whom had failed some six or eight years since, and compromised with their creditors for about fifty or sixty cents to the dollar; having been since then doing a successful business, at the close of the old year they waited on their old creditors, unexpectedly to them, with checks for the whole deficiency, with interest, in one instance; and for one-half the deficiency, with interest, in the other. The dry goods merchants, in the above cases, only acted in accordance with the principles of true moral honesty. We refer our mercantile friends to the article, in the former part of this Magazine, entitled "Morality for Merchants."

* There are several daily and weekly Journals from the United States; but in a list of eighteen Reviews and Magazines, but two are from the Union, viz: the "North American Review," and the "Merchants' Magazine."

RUSSIAN TRADE WITH CHINA.

According to the law of the old Chinese Empire, no nation was allowed to trade at two different frontiers of the Empire of China. The Russians, however, take no account of this law, for, not content with their trade through Kiachta, they have just founded a company for trading with the ports of China and with Japan. Two Russian ships, in 1806, attempted to trade to Kuantong, but an imperial rescript strictly forbade this, and prohibited any nation trading at Canton that had not special permission. We learn from the Augsburgh Gazette that the first expedition of the new Russian Company will try the question. It is thought that an embassy will accompany it, not only to conclude a treaty like that with England and America, but to open the navigation of the river Amur. It is wrong to suppose that the Dutch alone have commercial intercourse with Japan. The Russians have had relations of various kinds with that empire for upwards of half a century, to the great annoyance of the nominal masters of the country. It is well known that the Japanese not only added Jesso, and most of the Kurile islands, but Kunaschir, Ischicotan, Jutanop, and Urup to their kingdom, except the island of Karafto or Jarakai, miscalled Sachali by our geographers. The Russians who came over from Kamtschatka and Ochotsk are in constant intercourse with all these islands; they often sought to form colonies there, and have almost come in hostile contact with the Japanese on that account. According to a Japanese author, the Czarina Catharine said, "that it should always be the object of her children and grandchildren to seek to increase the Russian empire and extend its frontier. The Orotz, or Russians," says the same author, "obeyed this injunction, and occupied the whole of the country of Kamtschatka. They named a governor, and obliged the inhabitants to bring in as tribute a deer-skin. They then began to trade with the island of Jesso, receiving pepper, sugar, and linen, in exchange for gold and skins." He says: "We, Japanese, gather neither gold nor silver; we even make a secret of having such costly articles, for fear the Russians should take possession of the country. Jesso is to our kingdom as the lips and teeth are to the body. One must always be on one's guard."

THE NEW EXPRESS ESTABLISHMENT, IN WALL STREET.

The establishment of expresses in the United States, by individuals, has, from a small beginning, grown up to an extensive and wide-spread enterprise, and has, in fact, become an institution, as it were, of the country, as important in its bearings on the social and commercial movements of the day, as the post-office department of the federal government; managed, however, with greater system and skill. One of the leading expresses of New York, (Livingston, Wells, and Pomeroy,) have recently, at great expense, fitted up a new office, in a manner that it only requires a glance at, to show the system and care adopted in its management. Mr. Marshall, an intelligent gentleman connected with the express business, has furnished us with the following description of the new office:—

"The street door is fastened by a very strong and superior lock; and, in addition to this, there is a strong safety chain over the lock—so that, if the lock were forced from the outside, this chain would prevent the door being opened. Another advantage of the chain is this: the persons inside might be called to the door in the night, either by the arrival of an express, or an alarm of fire, or some other cause. By unlocking the door, and opening it as far as the slackness of the chain will allow, the persons inside could ascertain whether the person outside were entitled to admission, or not; thus guarding against the forcible ingress of improper persons. On the right hand, upon entering the door, is a desk designed for the use of strangers who may wish to write a note, or who have receipts to sign, and the like. This convenience prevents their being obliged to go to more private parts of the office for these purposes. Upon this desk, are letter-boxes for city distribution. The counter, at which parcels are received and delivered, is on the right hand side of the room; and the two desks at which the clerks make out receipts, are at

each end of the counter, and are labelled 'Receiving Clerks.' This counter is lower than usual—a decided improvement upon the high counters generally found in express offices; while its great width renders it equally safe. It is of a light cream color, slightly marbled, with a top of solid black walnut. Just beyond the counter, and jutting beyond it about a foot, is a private enclosure, some 9 feet wide, and 36 feet long, with a top of black walnut—labelled on the side 'Entry Clerks' and 'Assorting Clerks.' This enclosure is of great value to the systematic and safe management of the business. Within it, all the outward expresses are made up, and the inward ones received, examined, and prepared for delivery. It is so entirely excluded from observation, that no one can see what is going on within it—neither the public, nor any one connected with the office, except those whose business it is to attend to this department—a consideration which experience has shown to be of the utmost importance, as it prevents improper persons seeing which trunks going from the office are valuable. Within this enclosure is a set of closets, six in number, in each of which is alternately placed a bed and a wardrobe, for the use of those who occupy the office at night. Three persons remain in the office at night; and it is an invariable rule of the office that one of them shall *always* be upon watch, and be relieved by the others at regular and stated hours. In this apartment, a sufficient number of salamander safes are placed at the bed-sides of those who sleep in the office. The rear of the building is divided into two apartments; one of which is labelled 'Book-keepers,' and is occupied by them and by Mr. Livingston himself, whose desk is so placed as to see every thing that is going on at the counter. This room contains one of the largest salamander safes, and is so arranged as to furnish every facility for system in this important department. Attached to this, is a room labelled 'Foreign Agency,' exclusively devoted to foreign business—a branch of the general business which Mr. Livingston has organized, and prosecutes on his personal account; and which embraces the transmission of parcels to and from the various seaports and inland towns of England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, the Isles of Man, Guernsey, and Jersey; and to any and every part of the continent of Europe; and to Greece, Turkey, Egypt, the East Indies, and overland to the Pacific ocean; together with the collection of accounts, bills, drafts, legacies, and the like, in the above countries; presenting facilities for the settlement of estates, and collecting legal testimony, that will save parties the necessity of going to Europe to attend to them in person. Passengers can be brought out from any part of Europe through this agency, and patent-rights secured in England, Belgium, Holland, Russia, and the German States, &c., &c., &c."

CAPITAL AND LABOR.

On the "let alone" principle, capital will be always able to take the advantage of labor; and for this simple reason, that capital can wait—labor cannot. At the great fire in New York, forty or fifty dollars were paid for the use of a dray. Capital would not wait then, and therefore it was at the mercy of labor. This was the exception which proves the rule. The rule is, that labor cannot wait, and is therefore at the mercy of capital. When a man must have work to-day, or go without bread for himself and family, he is not in a position to make a fair bargain. Capital is able to look about, and to take advantage of all the circumstances which will enable it to reduce the wages of labor. The large clothes-dealers in the cities have their agents in the country, who get work done at the lowest prices. A gentleman told us, the other day, that he saw the daughter of a respectable farmer making shirts for eleven cents a piece, for one of the dealers. He asked her whether she thought it a sufficient price. "No," said she, "if I were obliged to support myself, I could not do it by this work; but I merely employ time which otherwise I should not use." It had not occurred to her that she was thus lowering the price paid to those who did depend on their labor for subsistence. But this is only one out of a multitude of examples, to show that the principle of competition does not regulate itself as it ought—that the "let alone" principle does not produce results which are in accordance with truth and justice. The principle of free competition is a good one for the strong, the sagacious—for those who have talent, means, energy; but it gives no chance to the weak, the poor, the friendless. It develops great energy, and produces great results; but it makes one part of society the tools and instruments by which another part may carve out their way to fortune.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Manual of Ancient and Modern History, comprising—I. Ancient History; containing the Political History, Geographical Position, and Social State of the Principal Nations of Antiquity, carefully revised from the Ancient Writers. II. Modern History; containing the Rise and Progress of the Principal European Nations, their Political History, and the Changes in their Social Condition; with a History of the Colonies founded by Europeans.* By W. C. TAYLOR. *Revised, with a Chapter on the History of the United States.* By C. S. HENRY, Professor of Philosophy and History in the University of the city of New York. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

Mr. Taylor's volumes combine the best summary on universal history that hitherto has been presented to the public. The present work possesses peculiar advantages for those who have not leisure to explore all the mass of historical literature, but who are desirous to know the principal facts in the annals of the world, and to acquire a general and accurate synopsis of the predominating features of general history. As a text-book for the professor, to be used in his classes, it offers attractions, it is believed, superior to any other similar synopsis of the kind. It is a masterly and eloquent, and, in our judgment, an accurate and impartial view of all those important influential discoveries and events, with their legislation, and other correlate affairs, which have transpired among the nations, so far as they are attested by apparently authentic evidence. There is also another place in which the "Manual of Ancient and Modern History" can be introduced with peculiar effect; and that is, within the domestic circle. The volume cannot be too widely circulated and read; and we earnestly recommend it as an indispensable family manual.

2.—*Rural Economy, in its Relations with Chemistry, Physics, and Meteorology; or, Chemistry Applied to Agriculture.* By J. B. BOUSSINGAULT, Member of the Institute of France, etc. Translated, with an Introduction and Notes, by GEORGE LOW, Agriculturist. New York: D. Appleton. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

We are here furnished with a summary view of all the questions of rural economy that admit of scientific investigation. The first part of the work treats in succession of the physical and chemical phenomena of vegetation; of the composition of vegetables, and their immediate principles; of fermentation, and of solids. The second comprises a summary of all that has yet been done on the subject of manures, organic and mineral; a discussion of the subject of solutions; general views of the maintenance and economy of live stock; and finally, some considerations on meteorology and climate, and on the relations between organized beings and atmosphere. The English translator says that, in the person of its distinguished author, the man of science is happily associated with the practical farmer. M. Boussingault's title to consideration is recognized wherever letters and education have extended their influence.

3.—*Woman in the Nineteenth Century.* By S. MARGARET FULLER. New York: Greeley & M'Elrath.

Those who have read and admired the popular common-placeisms of Mrs. Ellis, in her recently published essays for the women, wives, mothers, and daughters of England, will not probably comprehend or appreciate the independent views and wholesome truths of Miss Fuller, as set forth in this volume. The true dignity and sphere of woman is, we apprehend, as yet, but imperfectly understood or appreciated. Miss F. has not written a book, (to quote from "proverbial philosophy,") of detail, where all is orderly set down, and they that read may run, nor need to stop and think; but rather referring confidence implied in the reader's skill to unravel meaning mysteries. Ideas are oft-times shy of the close furniture of words, and thought, wherein only is power, may be best conveyed by a suggestion. We fear it will demand a large portion of the last half of the present century to fulfil her implied prophesy of woman's destiny on earth.

4.—*Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe, from* 1794 *to* 1805. Translated by GEORGE H. CALVERT. Vol. 1. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We have here what appears to us an excellent translation of the correspondence of two of the most remarkable German writers of the nineteenth century, printed to match Mr. Ripley's "Specimens of Foreign Literature." It opens, to use the language of the translator, who truly appreciates his subject, to the American and English reader the richest epistolary treasure that literature contains. There is no other instance of affectionate union between two men of such intellect and culture, and that under circumstances peculiarly adapted to promote a rapid interchange of letters. The correspondence consists of more than nine hundred letters, and embraces ten years of the prime of both, and ending only with Schiller's life. Mr. Calvert administers a severe, but just rebuke, to the author of the Phi Beta Kappa oration, recently delivered at Cambridge, for his stale compound of "calumny against one of the foremost men of the world—the most honored man of a people rich in virtue and genius."

5.—*Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. 4. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

This beautiful volume contains three valuable contributions to American biography, viz: the life of Roger Williams, by William Gammell; the life of Timothy Dwight, by William B. Sprague, D. D., and the life of Count Pulaski, by Jared Sparks. The memoirs are well written, and furnish comprehensive compends of the lives and characters of those eminent men, whose labors in the cause of civil and religious freedom have left an impress upon the genius of our institutions, that time cannot obliterate. Mr. Sparks's memoir of Pulaski is perhaps more of a history of the times of the generous and patriotic Pole, than a personal sketch of his life. We may repeat, with more earnestness than usual, the hackneyed remark, that no library can be complete without Mr. Sparks's admirable collection of original biographies of eminent Americans.

6.—*Essays. Second Series.* By RALPH WALDO EMERSON. Boston: James Munroe.

It has not been our good fortune to read the first series of Mr. Emerson's essays, but we have read enough of the present volume to satisfy us that all he has ever written is worthy of earnest study, and deep meditation. There are many things in these essays that present themselves with great force and beauty to our very ordinary capacity of comprehension; while there are others that require several readings, and much reflection, before we can discover the full force and meaning of the author. The volume contains eight essays, with titles as follows:—1. The Poet; 2. Experience; 3. Character; 4. Manners; 5. Gifts; 6. Nature; 7. Politics; 8. The Nominalist and Pietist; and a lecture delivered at Amory Hall, on the New England Reformers.

7.—*The Memento; a Gift of Friendship.* Edited by C. W. EVERETT. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

It will perhaps be objected to this volume that, as a gift-book, it comes out rather unseasonably. It is not, however, designed to be an "annual," nor merely "a gift-book for the holidays." It has that between its gilded covers that may justly claim for it a more permanent existence. Its two hundred and seventy-eight pages contain contributions from almost every American writer of note; and among the articles, those from the pen of our esteemed friend, the author, are not the least valuable. The illustrations are generally in keeping with the marked growth of the art of design and engraving in this country.

8.—*The New York Farmer and Mechanic; devoted to Agriculture, Mechanics, Manufactures, and the Arts.* New York: S. Fleet and William H. Starr.

This new monthly, devoted to the subjects above enumerated, is conducted in a manner to secure the confidence of all who desire sound and practical information on the subjects falling within its scope. It will form a volume of more than four hundred pages, and is furnished at the trifling sum of one dollar per annum.

9.—*Testamentary Counsels, and Hints to Christians on the Right Distribution of their Property by Will.* By a Retired Solicitor. First American edition, carefully revised by a Member of the American Bar. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam.

This little volume enforces the duty of making prompt testamentary arrangements, gives a brief view of the laws affecting wills, and refers to the different parties entitled to the serious and benevolent consideration of testators. It contains hints as to persons selected for guardians and executors, which are illustrated by a variety of facts, which have come within the professional knowledge of the author. The remarks in regard to benevolent bequests to professedly charitable institutions, are very well; but we think it would be more charitable, and more effectual good would be accomplished, if rich men were their own *administrators* in such matters.

10.—*Mother's Lessons, for Little Girls and Boys.* By a Lady of Boston. Boston: W. D. Ticknor & Co.

11.—*Little Stories, for Little Folks.* From the German. Boston: W. D. Ticknor & Co.

Two as elegant little quartos as we have ever seen, with a number of engravings, in a style of art that would be creditable to works designed for more advanced culture. The first is designed to take the place of the English book, entitled "Mamma's Lessons." The substitute for that book, by a Boston lady, is made more in accordance with our manners, and modes of expression. The simple and instructive "Little Stories," in the last named volume, are translated from the German. The author is a lady who appears to love children, and has written much for their entertainment, as well as for their improvement.

12.—*Pictorial Definer, Part 2, with Relative and Associated Words. A New and Original Work.* By Elizabeth Oram. New York: J. C. Riker.

This book contains a thousand illustrated words, and the thousand engravings are the prettiest we have ever seen in a school-book. The words are printed in large capitals, the relative and associate in small; all of which are divided and accentuated according to the pronunciation of the best authorities. The pictures serve as models for the forms of things. It is, on the whole, the most attractive and instructive book of the kind, for little folks, that has ever fallen under our observation.

13.—*The Cross of Christ; or, Meditations on the Death and Passion of our Blessed Lord and Saviour.* Edited by Walter Farquhar Hook, D. D., Vicar of Leeds. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This little volume will doubtless be appreciated by the devout churchman. It consists of meditations and devotions on the sufferings and passion of Jesus Christ. It does not pretend to be a complete manual of devotion on that inexhaustible subject, but "may be found useful as a companion and guide, in times of retirement." It forms one of the characteristically beautiful volumes of the Appletons' Churchman's Library.

14.—*The Divine Origin of Christianity.* By J. G. Pike, author of "Persuasives to Early Piety," "True Happiness," "Guide to Young Disciples," etc. New York: Robert Carter.

It is the design of this treatise to establish the divine origin of Christianity—to answer the inquiry, "Is the religion of Christ from God, or is it a cunningly devised fable?" The writer argues the divinity of Christianity from the miracles recorded in the Gospels, the prophecies of the Old and New Testament, the necessity of a revelation, and the practical tendency of Christianity; which appears, after all, to our mind, the most infallible proof of its heavenly origin.

15.—*The World's Religion, as Contrasted with Genuine Christianity.* By Lady Colquhoun, daughter of the Hon. Sir John Sinclair. New York: Robert Carter.

This little volume is evidently the production of one who views the world as delusive and ensnaring, and that no solid joy can accrue from its "vain show, and idle pageantry." It will commend itself to all who profess and call themselves evangelical Christians.

16.—*The Broadway Journal.* Edited by G. C. F. Briggs, Edgar A. Poe, H. C. Watson. New York: John Bisco.

The Broadway Journal, (we quote from the prospectus, with a slight change in the tense, and adding the *positive* for the *proposed*,) differs from any of the weekly periodicals now published in New York, as it is made up entirely of original matter, consisting of essays, criticisms on art and literature, domestic and foreign correspondence, and literary and scientific intelligence. Its criticisms are discriminating and just, and impress the reader with the conviction that they are made in all fairness, sincerity, and candor. We admire its elevated tone, and independent and manly bearing, and are gratified to learn that it is in "the full tide of successful experiment." It is the nearest approach to our *beau ideal* of what a literary Journal should be; and, if not properly appreciated and patronized, we can scarcely hope for another effort to raise the standard of this kind of literature in the capital of the nation.

17.—*The Book of Common Prayer, and Administration of the Sacraments, &c.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

This edition of the Episcopal prayer-book has been corrected by a committee appointed by the general convention of that church, assembled at Philadelphia, in October, 1844, and is declared by them, so corrected, to be the standard. It is handsomely printed, on snow-white paper, and a large bold type.

18.—*The Royal Sisters. A Historical Romance of the Middle Ages.* By Agnes Strickland. Boston: Saxton & Kelt.

19.—*The Fashionable Wife, and Unfashionable Husband.* By Mrs. Opie. Boston: Saxton and Kelt.

20.—*White Lies, and False and True; or, The Journey to London.* By Mrs. Opie. Boston: Saxton & Kelt.

Three as moral and instructive tales as are to be found in the language, neatly done up in paper covers.

21.—*Historical Sketch of O'Connell and his Friends; with a Glance at the Future Destiny of Ireland.* By Thomas D. M'Gee. New York: Sadlers.

This interesting volume, written in the true style of an Irish patriot, embraces apparently faithful sketches of Drs. Doyle and Milnor, Thomas Moore, John Lawless, Thomas Furlong, Richard L. Shiel, Thomas Steele, Counsellor Brick, Thomas Addis Emmet, William Cobbett, Sir Michael O'Loghlen, etc. We commend it to all who take any interest in the cause of Irish emancipation, or desire to see universal justice and freedom established among men.

22.—*Advice to a Young Christian, on the Importance of aiming at an Elevated Standard of Piety.* By a Village Pastor. With an Introductory Essay. By the Rev. Dr. Alexander, of Princeton. New York: Robert Carter.

These letters on religious subjects were written, as the author informs us, to instruct the daughter of a highly valued friend; and, from the earnest spirit diffused over them, we cannot doubt but that they will prove acceptable to a large portion of the religious world.

23.—*The American Common School Reader and Speaker, &c.* By John Goldsbury, A. M., Compiler of the "Common School Grammar," etc., and William Russell, author of "Lessons in Enunciation," etc., etc. Boston: Charles Tappan.

The design of this work is to furnish a text-book for the systematic teaching of reading and declamation, and consists of selections of pieces, in prose and verse; a large portion of which are from authors of our time and country, besides very copious and systematic rules for reading and speaking.

24.—*Dunigan's Illustrated Edition of the Holy Bible, according to the Douay and Rheimish Versions,* has been completed in twenty-four numbers. It forms a cheap and beautiful edition of the Catholic Bible, and will prove a valuable addition to the libraries of those who, like ourself, are not content with a single edition of Shakspeare and the Bible.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1845.

Art. I.—COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

There are few subjects that at this time occupy more of the attention of legislative bodies, than that of the terms upon which individuals are to be permitted to associate together for the purpose of trading with the public. The ingenuity of legislators is exercised in devising restrictions and regulations for the purpose of securing the rights of third parties trading with associations, and few or none of them appear to suppose that those third parties are more capable of judging what is for their own interest than any legislator can possibly be. Our whole system is based upon a recognition of the right of self-government, which includes a right, on the part of individuals, freely to contract with each other as to the terms upon which they will trade; and to determine for themselves whether they will trade with individuals or associations; and, if they prefer the latter, whether with those which offer, as a guarantee for the faithful performance of their agreement, the whole of their property, or that of a certain fixed capital. As no one is bound to trade with a company unless he deem it to his advantage so to do; if he does so, it should rest with him, as it seems to us, to satisfy himself of the security. Such being the case, we are unable to see the propriety of requiring legislative sanction for the adoption of any particular form of association, or any particular form of contract, and we have little doubt that it will soon become obvious that the present system of granting charters, as privileges and monopolies in favor of certain individuals, will give way to a recognition of the perfect right of all to contract with each other on such terms as they may deem most for their own advantage. The whole subject has been carefully examined in the following paper by M. Coquelin, originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July, 1843, and we think we cannot better occupy a part of our space, than in offering our readers a translation of it.

There have been singular misconceptions in regard to the great word "Association." It has been made to serve, at one time, as the text for

the most fanciful theories; and, at another, as the basis of the wildest and most extravagant calculations. We propose to offer to our readers a few remarks upon the tendency and real utility of the principle so denominated, after which we will proceed to the consideration of the particular subject with which we desire to occupy their attention.

Men have been taught to expect results of a most extraordinary kind to be attained by means of its aid. But recently we have seen among ourselves, schools of philosophy, professing to be able thereby to lead mankind forward to the accomplishment of great and unknown destinies, and the last echoes of their high-sounding words even yet ring in our ears, and those of our readers, thus rendering it unnecessary that we should designate them more particularly. They deemed it insufficient to ameliorate the existing order of things by gradually removing those defects in the organization of society which are the remains of past centuries, and thus continuing the work of previous generations, with a steady improvement in the mode of action: more radical changes being required to satisfy their ambition. The existing society wanted regularity: it was not sufficiently defined: it left too much to the human will—too much to the voluntary action of the individual. They desired one with a single centre or head—universal in its nature and object—in which individuality should cease to exist—to be possessed of a single soul, and moved by a single will; and to which man should feel himself attached by a single tie, but that to be sufficiently strong to control him in all his actions. Such was the end proposed for accomplishment by those pretended apostles of human association! Is it such as we should desire to arise? Or can we believe that it is by such means that the progress of mankind in civilization is to be promoted? In opposition thereto, the study of man, and of his history, proves to us that the social ties are daily increasing in number; that, in the progress of man toward civilization, there is a constant increase in the forms and objects of association; and that, in the natural course of things, there is a universal tendency that is directly opposed to the narrow and contemptible unity advocated in these schools.

Man, they say, is fond of society; and, therefore, they would desire to absorb him in a single society, as if the desire of association which they attribute to him could find but that single field for its exercise. Man *is* a social being: all his desires and faculties tend to render him such; but with the desire of association there is found combined a still stronger desire for freedom of action. Various in character, and changeable in feeling, man is instinctively induced to desire a state of society various and changeable as his own nature; and, instead of uniting himself indissolubly with any single portion of his fellow-men, attaching himself thereto by a chain, the weight of which is almost beyond his power to bear, while its strength is such as to forbid the idea that it should be broken, he would surround himself by thousands of the finest filaments, which, while connecting him in every direction with beings resembling himself, would still give play to the feelings of his individual nature. Such is the course that reason would dictate, and such is the tendency of civilization. History affords abundant evidence that it has so manifested itself in past times, and we have the strongest reasons for believing that such will be the case in future.

When we compare, in this respect, modern times with those of antiquity, how great is the difference! Who can have failed to remark in how

many respects the social ties are less strict in the former than in the latter. In Greece and Rome, the city did not limit itself to the protection of her members: she bound and enslaved them. Her demands upon them were incessant. She controlled their movements, and occupied their time, while she demanded of them every species of sacrifice. Their goods, their labors, and their lives, were hers. The *citizen* overcame the *man*, and was himself but a living fraction, a molecule of the city. Of individual rights, there were few or none. The rights of man, in our days so solemnly proclaimed, and so fully recognised in the legislation of all free nations, were then unknown. All individuality was extinguished in the common feeling of duty to country. Liberty had no existence. That which was so denominated by the ancients, was a participation in the exercise of the sovereign power—of power over others; but not, as it is now understood, a right to the free application of OUR OWN labor and OUR OWN talents, and to the peaceable enjoyment of OUR OWN property. The state was everything, and the individual was nothing; whereas, the distinguishing characteristic of modern civilization is a diminution of the power of the state, and an increase of that of the man: it is the constantly increasing regard for individual rights. The security of person, of property, and of opinion, now so extensively enjoyed, is held inviolate. Reasons of state are no longer permited to prompt to any interference with them. These differences are not to be ascribed to any want of strength in the modern constitutions of government; for those nations whose organization is most perfect, those whose government is most steady, and those whose advance in the course of civilization is the most rapid, are precisely those which are remarkable for the greatest diminution of the rights of the state, and the most religious regard for those of individuals.

Should we thence infer that the moderns are less advanced in social life than were the people of Greece and Rome? Certainly not. To admit that such was the case, would be to deny the existence of that desire of association which is invoked. If, in our times, the political association has lost some of its exclusive privileges, it has done so to the advantage of one of a higher species. Man has not availed himself of the freedom which he has recovered, to return to the primitive independence of savage life; but, on the contrary, has established for himself, and to his great advantage, an infinite number of relations, of the most various character, with his fellow-men. Commerce and manufactures, arts and sciences, and even our very pleasures, have afforded to the moderns opportunities for the formation of social relations; so that there is now scarcely a single act in the life of man that does not bring him into contact with his fellow-men. The increase in the number of these relations is not more remarkable than is their extent. It is scarcely, indeed, possible to compare, in this respect, those of the ancients, limited by the walls of their city, with those of our time, when the intercourse between nations the most distant has become so easy and so rapid. Thus, precisely as one of the ties by which man is connected with his fellow-men becomes weakened, we find him amidst thousands of others, formed of his own free will, liable to be changed at his convenience, and consistent, therefore, with the enjoyment of liberty; but which, from their character and their number, produce connections of the most indestructible kind.

It is thus that, by studying carefully the progress of civilization in past ages, we are enabled to trace, in the various combinations of society, changes analagous to those which are observed in the processes of different branches of manufacture. In their infancy, the phenomena of production are simple. Everything is done at one place, and by the same hands. The man to whose labor in the field we are indebted for the raw material, fashions it to suit the wants of those for whom it is intended, and delivers it to the consumer. The wool is grown, and spun, and woven, and worn, without being removed from the farm. At a later period, labor becomes divided, and the various operations are separated from each other, executed by different hands, and perhaps at different places. The more rapid the advance of manufactures, the greater is the division of labor; and the greatest perfection of the latter marks the most rapid progress of the former. So is it with association. In uncivilized times it is most simple. The whole social aptitude is then exercised in a single circle of very limited extent—first, that of the family, and soon after, that of the state. At a later period, we find many circles among which the life of man is divided; and the more perfect the civilization, the more numerous become these circles, and the more specific their objects; and thus, as in manufactures, the constantly increasing division of labor tends to the daily increase of the productive power; so with this enlarged application of the principle of association, the social life gains in extent, in depth, and in intensity.

Properly applied, and for the purposes to which it is adapted, the desire of association is a lever of wonderful power; one that is capable of producing great results; and one which man desires at every step to call to his aid. By the union of individual forces, of which it is the cause, there is obtained an increase of power so great that we find it difficult to conceive of an enterprise so extensive as not to be practicable. Of how many applications is it not susceptible in trade and manufactures! The most gigantic labors become simple and easy when aided by it; and works, that could not ever be dreamed of by individuals, become easy of execution when numbers are associated for their performance.

We must not, however, believe that it may be applied on all occasions, even within the limits we have above indicated—those of trade and manufactures. The increase of power is relative, not absolute; and it is obtained only when the union of which it should be the result is directed to the attainment of an object, the importance of which is proportioned to the extent of the association. When such is not the case, there is a diminution, instead of an increase, of power, each of the individuals losing a part of that which he before possessed. However advantageous may be trading and manufacturing associations, individual enterprise will, at all times, be found maintaining its rights. If the former have advantages resulting from an union of forces, individual energy, prompted by self-interest, affords others by which competition is maintained: to wit, promptitude, economy, and careful management of detail. According to La Fontain, "we must see the master's eye." It is seen in the operations of individuals, while it is wanting in those of associations, or at least those which are on a great scale, and it is difficult to estimate the full extent of the injury that results therefrom. There are limits to the powers of man, and the manager of a great undertaking, even although devoted to it as fully as if it were his own individual enterprise, can never give to all the

details the same care and attention that could be given to one on a more limited scale. Association should not, therefore, be adopted for either trading or manufacturing purposes, except when there are serious grounds of preference. What these are, it would be difficult to state, but we may furnish some general indications of them.

In the first place, it is necessary, in all cases, when the magnitude of the operation is such as to exceed the power of individual exertion. Here, there is no choice. Again—although even not beyond the limits of individual ability, it might be that advantage would result from executing it on a large scale; as, by so doing, recourse might be had to machinery that would be too costly for an operation of on a small one—or because, in a large establishment the arrangements may be made more complete, involving a more perfect division of labor, and causing greater economy of expenditure.

In matters of this kind there is required, however, a good deal of caution in regard to paper calculations as even when apparently most accurate, there is found very often good reason to doubt the correctness of figures. It happens not unfrequently that it is desired to bring within the sphere of association certain operations that have been thus far successfully carried on by individuals, and an estimate is furnished with a view to prove the advantage to be derived from it. The expenses of the private establishment are first given, to show how much of them is unnecessary; the waste is then shown, and the absence of division of labor, with the loss of which it is the cause, attributable to the limited extent of the concern; and then an account of the expenditure and product of a great company is furnished, with results contrasting most favorably with those of the individual operator, because of the great apparent economy of labor. The calculation is most precise, the deductions are most logical, and the results are undeniable. Nevertheless, when it is attempted to carry the proposed operation into effect, it is found that the individual trader, or manufacturer, notwithstanding the competition which it was threatened would destroy him, is enabled to continue his business, bearing, without effort, the weight of his expenses, and of his losses, whilst, with all their great savings, the company is ruined; and it is so because in their estimates they had omitted certain moral influences, by which all their calculations are overthrown. Individual establishments are indebted for their success to the activity and care of the owners, who require promptitude and exactness from those in their employ, while maintaining harmony among themselves, and thus are enabled to establish economy in the details of their business; while companies too often owe their ruin to the want of all these qualities. A short career of activity is not unfrequently succeeded by a want of both care and industry on the part of the managers. Personal attention to the performance of operations so extended is deemed an exertion too severe for their limited powers, and it ceases to be given; the example, thus set, is followed by those in their employ; and, in a short time, the want of union, and of concert of action, becomes manifest; want of order gains ground, while the appearance of it is maintained; and, at length, waste and robbery accomplish what negligence commenced. Here we have the history of numerous companies, past and present. It is that of most public establishments, which are to be regarded as great associations; it will be that of more of those institutions now dreamed of by our different social schools, if, perchance, they

should ever be so far matured as to test the correctness of our views in regard to them. Without doubting in the least the advantages of associations, even when, in certain cases, they are found competing with the exertions of individuals, we may be permitted to express the opinion that those advantages are neither so general nor so great as is sometimes supposed, and that we ought not to overlook the disadvantages by which they are sometimes overbalanced.

Those disadvantages are, however, greatly diminished when the operation is of such a character as to admit of a regular and steady course of action, where the labor is uniform, where each day sees repeated the movement of that which preceded it, and where each person has marked out for him beforehand the duty that he is expected to perform. Such is the case, more especially, in establishments in which the duty, is in a great measure, reduced to one of mere responsibility, as, for example, in banking and insurance companies.

This habit of association is also applicable to establishments which, like banks, require a large amount of confidence, because a large and powerful company will always command it to a greater extent than an individual, be he whom he may. It is so, likewise, in those operations in which guarantee against risk is required—first, because in general those risks may, when taken on a large scale, be measured by aid of the doctrine of probabilities, and thus cease to present any real danger; and, secondly, because, in case of loss, it is divided among a large number of persons, and is little felt; whereas it would be utterly destructive to an individual. Associations may also properly engage in operations which, although offering the prospect of a large return, are attended with too much risk to warrant individuals in undertaking them. Were it, for example, proposed to fit out an expedition for a new and comparatively unknown country, a company, towards the formation of which no one of the members had contributed more than a very small portion of his means, might be in a situation to undertake it, perhaps with advantage to the proprietors, and to the nation at large.

Associations are formed, in the United States, as well as in England, for undertakings the most gigantic in extent, and the most hazardous in character. In addition to the vast extent of the works they have constructed for purposes of internal communication, they have undertaken the foundation of distant colonies, the creation of cities in the woods, and the exploration of unknown regions of country. There is no idea so bold, provided it offer the prospect, remote or proximate, of a sufficient return, that they are not tempted to carry it into execution. We observe, as a consequence of this adventurous spirit, occasional failures, partial disasters, and sometimes even great disturbances in the commercial world, although these latter are much more frequently to be attributed to political events than to mercantile miscalculation. This disposition to adventure is not unattended by risk; but then, on the other hand, how great is the spring that it gives to trade, and how numerous are the outlets for which both trade and manufactures are indebted to it! How widely, in the case of those two nations, is the sphere of commercial activity extended, and how rapid is the increase of their wealth! If some of their trading associations have met with disasters, under which they have fallen, hundreds of others have survived, the pride and strength of their respective countries; and

even over the ruins of some of those which have given way, have been opened new roads to wealth, of which individuals have largely availed themselves.

II.

At no time has the principle of association been extensively applied in France. Whether before or since the revolution, we find but a small number of petty companies, and few or none of those powerful combinations of capital and men that are required for the formation of a system of extensive commercial operations. Most persons are thence induced to suppose that the genius of the French nation is not in accordance with this principle—an idea which we believe to be very erroneous, although we shall not now stop to examine it, but will proceed to show what we deem to be the true cause of the evil: to wit, the state of the law regulating the formation and management of associations.

There is reason to believe that companies for trading purposes were left to manage themselves until 1673, at which time it was deemed expedient to subject them all to one general law. The ordinance then published recognized the existence of two kinds: viz., the *societe en nom collectif*, and the *societe en commandite*, which were regulated by it nearly as they are at the present day. In addition to those which ranged themselves under these two heads, there were others, free and irregular, but temporary in their nature, generally formed for the performance of some single and specific operation, and with which the law did not, therefore, interfere. At that time they were known as *societies anonymes*, but they are now styled *societes en participation*.

This system, as we see, provided no place for the larger species of association; for neither of the two forms recognized by the law was susceptible of application on a great scale; the *societe en commandite* not then being permitted the division of the capital into shares, which has since been authorised. Those then termed *anonymes* were destined to but a very brief period of existence, having in them no cohesive principle. The larger species of association—that founded on transferable stock, and the only one fitted for extensive operations—was then scarcely at all known. The only examples were some few that were authorised by the government, as the India Company, the Bank of Law, and others of a similar kind—companies organized under the grant of special privileges, and less to be regarded as commercial establishments than state institutions.

At the close of the revolution, in consequence of the disordered state of the government, commercial associations were enabled, in some degree, to free themselves from restrictions. It was then that the practice arose, among the *societes en commandite*, of dividing the capital into transferable shares, the effect of which was greatly to enlarge their sphere of action. At the same time was seen to arise a new species of association, to which the old *societe anonyme*, thanks to the license she enjoyed, served, as it seemed, for a pretext, although the difference between them was very essential. This new species of association, greater in its capital, more numerous as regards its members, and more extensive in its operations, thus made its way into the world under a borrowed name, and without legal recognition; and yet, notwithstanding its precarious position, it has filled, with advantage, the situation to which it was entitled by reason of its admirable constitution. It is the same which is now known as the *societe anonyme*.

At the formation of the code, in 1807, the system adopted in regard to associations was essentially that of the ancient legislation, but there were engrafted thereon some of those innovations which custom had sanctioned. The *societe en commandite* retained the privilege of dividing its capital into transferable shares, and the new *societe anonyme* received a legal sanction, with, however, the reservation to the government of the right of determining the expediency of the formation of any company of this latter description. As to the old *societe anonyme*, that ephemeral association which the law had never undertaken to regulate, it retained its old privileges, changing only its name. That now given to it was *societe en participation*, being the same that had before been held by one of its branches.

This law of 1807 has existed to the present time, and it is in its provisions that we must seek the cause of the torpor of the spirit of association among us, as well as of the abuses that have so frequently attended the cases in which it has been applied. By it, three species of commercial associations are recognised.

In the first, *la societe en nom collectif*, all the parties are required to be specified by name in a public declaration, and their names alone serve as the groundwork of the association. Their union involves the most entire responsibility, in their persons, and to the full extent of their fortunes, for all the engagements of the company, and those engagements may be formed by any one of the persons signing the contract of partnership.

The second, *la societe commanditaire*, is formed between one or more acting partners, responsible for all engagements, in person and in property, and one or more special partners, who supply the capital, and are named *commanditaires*, or *partners en commandite*. The names of the first class—those of the acting partners—alone appear in any contracts of the association, and to them exclusively is reserved the control of the action of the company. So far as regards them, everything is precisely as it would be in any ordinary partnership, but the special partners are liable for losses only to the extent of the capital they have subscribed to the company.

The third, *la societe anonyme*, has no connection with the names of the associators. That which is given to it, is usually one calculated to designate the object of the enterprise. None of the partners are liable beyond the amount of their subscribed capital. It is managed by persons employed for that purpose, whether partners or not, who are liable to be changed at the will of the proprietors, and they are either salaried or otherwise, as the case may be. Their management carries with it no responsibility on their part for the debts of the company, nor any other, except for the due execution of the duties entrusted to them.*

It is thus, and nearly in these words, that associations are regulated by the code. We have, however, omitted various provisions for carrying out the system, because not of a fundamental character.

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* It will readily be seen that these three forms of association correspond precisely with those known among us as the common partnership, the limited partnership, and the chartered company, or corporation. The two former will hereafter be referred to by those names; but, in speaking of the latter, we shall use the French one, as in noticing English associations of that description, the author uses the term corporation, with reference to some differences that he thinks exists between those and the *societé anonyme*. We are not, however, aware of any such difference. [*Translator.*

In examining these general arrangements, and comparing them with the practice under them, we find that the first is a combination of capital and of persons, and constitutes the most absolute form of commercial association. That which renders it such is not less the extent of the responsibility which is assumed, than the obligation imposed by the publicity given to their names. The last, placed at the opposite extremity of the scale, gives us, on the contrary, a simple association of capital. Everything that could tend to remind us of the individual is dropped, the associates taking no part in the management, except so far as to designate the persons to whom it is to be confided, and to require from them reports of the disposition of the capital confided to their care. The second occupies a sort of middle position between the two, being a sort of mixed association; but it is to be remarked that the position of the special partners differs materially from that of members of a *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, because the latter, reserving to themselves, as they do, the right of changing the direction, are at all times the fountain of power: whereas the former, having once paid up their capital, abdicate all authority, and relinquish all right of interference, leaving the management exclusively to the acting partners.

We cannot fail to be struck with the restrictive spirit which predominates throughout the system, and which is fully shown in the single sentence, "The law recognizes three kinds of commercial association." The act of association being a most natural one, it would appear that the terms of it might advantageously be left to the parties themselves, to be modified as they might respectively judge best for the promotion of their several interests; but we see, on the contrary, that the law takes their place, proposing three different modes of accomplishing their object, and leaving them only the choice as to which they would prefer. Let them select which they may, they find their proceedings tramelled by regulations of the strictest kind, rigorously enforced, and incapable of modification with a view to the necessities of the various cases that may and do arise.

Is this right? Is it to be regarded as an indication of wisdom and foresight on the part of the legislator, or simply as an abuse of the power of regulation, a restraint upon the freedom of trade, and an useless and injurious interference with the right of men freely to contract one with another? We shall see in the sequel; but it is proposed first to inquire whether or not the various combinations thus indicated by the law are the only possible ones, whether they are sufficient for the purposes of trade, and whether the limitation to a mere choice among them does not interfere injuriously with the development of the habit of association. We shall preface this inquiry by an examination of the advantages to be derived from the several authorised forms themselves.

The first, or common partnership, would appear, at first sight, to be the most perfect, as it is the most rigorous in its requirements. It is the absolute type of commercial association; but, for the reason that it is so rigorous, and so absolute, it is not susceptible of application on an extensive scale. Too many conditions are required in an alliance so close, to admit that many persons should associate themselves together under it. Where men contribute their time and attention to a common stock, it is necessary that there should be some similarity of habit and of capacity, or that they should endeavor to adapt themselves to each other; and, if it be not absolutely necessary that they should be equal in their contributions

of credit and capital, there must be established among them, in this regard, such regulations as will tend to prevent dispute, and this is not always readily or completely accomplished. Again—where men are thus responsible, and where each exercises the right of binding his partners to an unlimited extent, there must be an equally unlimited confidence in each other. Such a connection involves a necessity for daily, if not for hourly intercourse, which, in its turn, requires that there should be a conformity of disposition, and of temperament, or, at least, a habit of mutual tolerance. These things could never be found in an extensive association. The most we have a right to hope for, is to find them occasionally in a small group of relations or friends. Being indispensable to common partnerships, it is obvious that, although applicable to a vast variety of operations, the number of pesons composing them must always be very limited.

The *societe en commandite*, or limited partnership, although subjected to regulations that are abundantly rigorous, allows much more freedom than the ordinary partnership. As the mass of the partners take no part in the management, there is far less tendency to discord, the probability of a prolonged and peaceful existence, is greatly increased, and less difficulty consequently attends its application on a large scale. Those difficulties which attend the forced co-operation in ordinary partnership have here no existence. It is not required that there should be harmony of opinion, or similarity of capacity, or of character, that they should at all times think and act alike; it is, on the contrary, sufficient that they have adopted, once for all, the views of the acting partner, and that they deem his character to afford them a warrant for expecting faithful management of the interests confided to his care.

Would the reader see the action of a limited partnership in its most rigorous form, let him suppose an inventor seeking for a capital to enable him to carry his invention into practice. To obtain the aid of capitalists, he must offer them a share of the anticipated benefit—they must associate themselves with him in the chances of its success. In such a case, which of the forms would he select? Not a common partnership, certainly! for who would call in a third person to take part in the management of a business, the secret of which belonged exclusively to himself? What advantage, indeed, would result from the unlimited liability of the partners, where there was no reciprocity? Neither would he select the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, in which he might be superseded as manager. He would stand, in such an association, on no better footing than any other share holder, and he might be lost in the crowd; whereas, the association existing, as it were, by and for him, the management would appear to belong to him as a matter of right.

Cases occur, in which a merchant, or a manufacturer, without being precisly an inventor, has undeniable claims to the management of an undertaking, from the possession of qualities peculiarly calculated to promote its success. So great, indeed, is the necessity, in many cases, for the limited partnership, that it is difficult to conceive how we could dispense with, or replace it. Suppress it, and there will be seen, on all sides, inventions abandoned, talents unproductive, and the most promising establishments struck with paralysis, or perhaps even death.

Such as it is, nevertheless, the limited partnership, although well adapted for certain cases, is not fitted for the general business of life. Vesting, as it does, all power in the hands of the acting partners, in

whom the association is personified, it is obvious that there should be reason for so doing found in the fact of his possessing peculiar qualifications, as, otherwise, the company would appear to be created chiefly for his individual advantage. In cases where the associates are equal, or nearly so, in their rights and claims, and where no one is seen to possess any particular recommendation for the post of manager, where the management might be performed indifferently, by various members of the association; or even, where the company having been formed without the special intervention of any single individual, belongs, as we may say, to itself; the grant of such absolute power would be a monstrous absurdity. What then would be the proper form in such a case? The reader must already have seen that it would be that of the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company.

That is the form of association which especially belongs to our time, and which is suited to our wants. It is the one which may look upon the future as its property. Everything tends to prove that such is the case: its recent origin; its rapid success in the short period during which it has been permitted to exert its energies, notwithstanding the efforts that have been made, both in France and in England, to supply its place; and its immense extension in the United States, where it has had to encounter less interference on the part of legislators. It is necessary only to examine it, to be fully satisfied how admirably it enters into the spirit, and how perfectly it adapts itself to the wants of trade.

Capitalists coming together from various quarters, agree with each other to enter into any given operation. Each takes such share as suits his inclination and his means. With the amount subscribed, they form a joint capital suited to the object they have in view. They then designate the persons who shall have charge of the management, for their common benefit, and their duties are performed. They meet and they separate without knowing each other; they are held together by a single tie, but otherwise are entirely free as regards their persons and their acts. If any further duty rest upon them, it is only that of *surveillance*, always easy, and one that may be performed from a distance, or dispensed with, as occasion may require. There are none of the annoyances that attened an ordinary partnership. The capital being once paid up, every member is free, and there is no responsibility to disquiet him, as his losses are limited by the extent of his interest. If so disposed, and it meets the approbation of the other share holders, he takes a part in the direction, but otherwise leaves it in the hands of others.

As the capital of the company may be divided at will, and as the associates are such with reference only to that capital, and no demand is made upon their time or attention, it follows that the stock by which the capital is represented may be diffused throughout the nation, or even held in foreign countries; and, in this manner, a whole nation may unite itself in a national enterprise, or the nations of the world combine for the execution of a work intended for the general good of mankind. There is nothing which accords so fully with the cosmopolitan spirit of trade as this species of association—nothing which favors so directly that commercial union of the various nations, which it is so obviously the tendency of the inventions of our time to produce.

How perfect, too, is the facility of proportioning the amount of capital to the extent of the undertaking! The fortune and credit of the single

capitalist, however great, have their limits, and may exceed, or fall short of the desired amount. In the first case, he is unwilling to devote himself to any enterprise that is not in some measure commensurate with his means; while in the latter, and more common case, he finds only embarrassment and failure. In an association like that of which we speak, the capital is elastic, and may be increased or diminished at discretion.

It is more particularly in extensive undertakings that the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, possesses advantages, not only over individuals, such as may readily be understood, but over all other forms of association. The common partnership cannot extend itself, as we have seen, because of its numerous requirements. The limited partnership is very limited in its powers. In the *societe anonyme*, on the contrary, the base of the association may be extended at will, as there is no necessary limit to the amount of the capital. It is for this reason that this form is so peculiarly fitted to the enlarged ideas of our times.

There are other reasons which give it a decided advantage over all the other forms. In the common partnership, the equality of power possessed by the partners, and the necessity for its daily exercise, tend to produce daily discussions, and ultimately a want of harmony among them. The limited partnership is not liable to this exception, but it is because the persons who furnish the capital are compelled to forego all control over its management. The *societe anonyme* restores everything to its right place, establishing order without interfering with right. It leaves to the mass of the share holders sufficient power—all, in fact, that they could advantageously exercise—that of appointing, directing, and removing the managers. Appointed themselves by the shareholders, these managers exercise, in their turn, an absolute control over the persons whose services are required to carry out their views, engaging or discharging them at their pleasure. Thus, while among the members there is that perfect equality required for permanent association, there is among the employees that subordination which is indispensable to the atttainment of unity, steadiness, and energy of action; and withal, the righs of the various parties are fully maintained. The union of these advantages in the *societe anonyme* would appear to render it the most perfect form of association.

III.

Unless we greatly deceive ourselves, the views we have thus submitted to our readers must tend to induce them to agree with us in the doubts we have expressed as to the sufficiency of the system established among us. It is obvious that these three forms, with their numerous formalities, and their limited power of application, are far from filling the vast circle of association. It is impossible not to see that they are widely separated from each other, and that there are vast spaces unoccupied. Between the common partners, who identify themselves with each other, body and goods, and the holders of shares, in a *compagnie anonyme*, who have put into the common stock but a portion of their capitals, and are free from all further responsibility, there is room for very many possible, and, perhaps, excellent combinations to exist; and it can scarcely be doubted that, if man had, in this respect, been left perfectly free, his ingenuity, constantly at work to increase his means, and to enable him to avail himself of his own resources, would have discovered new modes by which the principle of association would have been rendered vastly more pro-

ductive than it has yet been made among us. Suppose, for example, that in the first, or common partnership, that of unlimited liability, the partners were released from the obligation of publishing their names to the world, and that the association were known by the name of only one of the partners, or by that of the object for the promotion of which the company had been formed; there would be an immediate change of character, and the ties by which the partners were held together would be rendered less stringent; and, consequently, the power of extension would be proportionably increased. If, in addition, it were permitted to such an association to divide its capital into shares, (a thing too natural and too simple ever to be prohibited,) there would be nothing to prevent its application to extensive operations, without in any way confounding it with the *societe anonyme*, or chartered company, from which it would still be distinguished by the unlimited responsibility of its members. In this manner, from each one of the recognised forms of association might be produced a variety of new ones.*

It cannot but be regretted that it should have been deemed necessary to define so carefully the various forms of association, to limit their number, and to determine so rigorously the conditions of their existence. It would seem desirable to allow more latitude to trade, and to permit greater freedom in the formation of contracts. If the legislator has regarded this limitation as an act of foresight, or of wisdom, he has certainly deceived himself, as, instead of producing regularity of association, he has done nothing but prevent the development of the great principle. Instead of introducing order into this species of transactions, he has produced, under a deceitful appearance of regularity, the highest degree of disorder; and he might have foreseen that it was inevitable that the interests of individuals would induce an attempt to break the chains by which they were bound, and to escape by secret outlets, when the great gates should be closed against them.

Nevertheless, such as it was, with all its deficiencies, the system, thus prescribed, was capable of being advantageously applied, had the subsequent arrangements been of a more liberal character. Freed from further restrictions, those three species of association, although insufficient, would have answered for a vast variety of situations, and for the satisfaction of a host of wants; but the legislator has surrounded them with express restrictions, or with formalities indirectly restrictive, which greatly retard their development. The abuse of the power of regulation so obvious in the general outline of the system, is not less manifest in the details. We shall now proceed to show what, with the aid of these restrictions, the associations become in practice.

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* In 1838, in a memoir on commercial association, M. Wolowski proposed, with a view to remedy some of the abuses of the limited partnership, to grant certain authority to the special partners, or to a council of inspection to be instituted by them. M. Wolowski did not remark that what he proposed was not merely a modification of the limited partnership, but a new species of company—one far more convenient than that whose constitution he proposed to improve, being better suited to purposes to which it would then be applied; but not at all fitted to those for which it has thus far been used. About the same time, M. Vincens, Counsellor of State, showed that the constitutions granted to the different *societés anonymes*, were not always alike in their provisions. There are, in fact, important differences among them—differences not authorised by the general law under which they are granted, which is too absolute and rigorous in its requirements to accommodate itself to the wants of trade. The forms of association are susceptible of an almost incalculable number of useful modifications.

In the first place, no partnership, however small, either common or limited, can be formed without considerable *eclat*, and the compliance with an almost endless series of formalities. The thirty-ninth article of the code requires that there should be a public declaration, or that agreements should be executed and acknowleged according to certain forms, as designated in article 1325 of the *code civile*—that is to say, there must be as many copies as there are contracting parties, and in each copy must be inserted, on pain of invalidity, a statement of how many copies, have been made. In matters of this kind, requiring often to be promptly carried into effect, these formalities are unnecessary, and the rapid movements of trade would certainly accommodate themselves much more readily to arrangements which could be formed or discontinued by letters, or by the most simple form of agreement, and of which the existence could be established by the correspondence, or by the books. This, however, is not all. The *code de commerce* is not to be satisfied with this small measure of regulation.

That an association, or partnership, may be legally formed, it is required, by article 42, that an extract from the articles of agreement be delivered, within a fortnight, to the clerk of the tribunal of commerce of the *arrondissement* in which the business is to be carried on, to be registered by him, and then placarded in the court-room during the period of three months, and the same forms must be observed in every *arrondissement* in which the company proposes to have a place of business. This extract must contain the name, surname, quality, and place of residence, of the several partners; the style and title by which the association is to be known; the names of the persons who are authorised to act and to sign for it; the amount of shares, or the sum furnished by each of the special partners; the time at which its operation is to commence, and the period fixed for its termination. If the partnership be continued beyond the time fixed, or if it be dissolved before that time, or if one or more of the associates should retire, or if any new classes or stipulations be introduced into the agreement, or if there should be any change in the title by which the company is to be known, in all these cases the same formalities are required to be observed, and that they may be so, in their fullest extent, the legislator has thought proper to visit their omission with the most certain, if not the most moral of punishments, by declaring the contract invalid as regards the parties by whom it is formed, without prejudice, however, to the claims of third parties.

We are not disposed to lay unnecessary stress upon this abuse of the power of regulation, or upon the injury of which it is the cause—a serious injury, although habit tends to diminish our consciousness of it; but we would particularly desire the attention of our readers to the long and tedious announcement that is required of every association for the purposes of trade, great or small. The terms of a private contract are here required to be exposed to the public eye, during a period of three months. Far less is required for the publication of the banns of marriage. An union for trading purposes, if its duration should be required to bear any proportion to the length of its announcement, would never be dissolved under twenty or thirty years. Change—movement—are the life and spirit of trade, and it is a violation of its first principles to subject to such regulations and restrictions associations formed for its prosecution.

These precautions are said to be required as a security for the rights of third parties. If so necessary, how does it happen that they have been, thus far, dispensed with in England, where partnerships were formed without any of the ceremonies in use among us? Why, if so necessary, are they dispensed with in the *societes en participation*? We know that of them is not required the observance of the forms thus insisted on with regard to all others, and that their existence may be proved by the books, the correspondence, and even by oral testimony. Why this partial abandonment of securities, elsewhere deemed so needful? It is, say they, because it would be impossible to enforce them in regard to associations destined to so short a term of existence. The absurdity of requiring a three months' notice of a contract that might endure but as many days, was too obvious to escape even our legislators; but, if such securities were at all needed, the necessity therefor would appear to increase precisely as the term of existence of the association *is* diminished. A transient union leaves few traces of its having existed, and it is always difficult of proof; whereas, in more enduring associations, the proof is supplied by the actions of the parties interested. If books, and letters, and testimony of witnesses, are to be deemed sufficient evidence in the case of *societes en participation*, there is far greater reason why they should so be deemed in the other cases.

Between the *societes en participation*, which are generally established with a view to some single object, and those longer-lived associations, some of which appear destined to an existence almost equal in duration to the life of man, the distance is very great; so much so that room might be found for an infinite variety of associations, formed for given purposes, and without the expectation of any extraordinary duration. Such partnerships would very frequently be formed, and they would be most useful; but how is it possible to *do* so, when the law requires, invariably, three months' notice?

It would seem as if the lawgiver had thought that he was rendering good service in introducing and enforcing the principle of permanence. It is the common fault of legislators to attach importance to duration, and to endeavor to impress upon everything they touch this character of invariability, as if it were to be desired that everything should outlive the wants for the satisfaction of which it had been needed, or that it should be perpetuated after it had ceased to be useful. Durability and permanence are not in harmony with the spirit of trade. So much the better then, say they, if by their enforcement we can place dikes in the way of this constantly moving flood! They seem to believe that the varying character of arrangements for the purposes of trade is produced by a mere desire of change—caprice, and that there is nothing in it that is reasonable. If, however, this tendency to change does exist, the cause is to be found in the infinite variety of circumstances and situations, and in the necessity that trade should accommodate its arrangements thereto. If it passes from one mode of combination to another, trying each in succession, it is because its ingenuity is constantly taxed to produce this accommodation. Should it continue unchangeable, while all is changing around it? It would be as well to advise the seaman always to avail himself of the same winds, and always to use the same sails.

Of the three kinds of association that are permitted, we see that the two first are greatly restrained in practice by the securities required by the law. Those which relate to the *societe anonyme* produces this effect in a still greater degree. In the former case, the legislator has been content with requiring an observance of certain forms, but in the latter, he has expressly prohibited the formation of any such association, except when directly authorised by the government.

We sometimes see attempts to justify this excess of regulation by a reference to the peculiar character of the *compagnie anonyme*, and to the insufficiency of security which it is supposed to offer to those who trade with it. We shall, in due season, inquire into the validity of this reason, but will first see what is the effect of this restriction, and how far it tends to prevent the extension of the principle of association. To understand this fully, it will be sufficient to acquaint ourselves with the labors incident to the formation of a company of that kind.

Let us suppose one or more individuals to have conceived the idea of forming such a company. If they were free, what would they do? Having determined upon this subject, and arranged their plan of operation, they would offer it for public consideration, perhaps to a limited number of persons, with whom, or a part of whom, they would form an union. All this would be perfectly simple and easy of performance, there being no difficulties to be overcome but those which were inherent to the project itself. The moment, however, that it became necessary to obtain the authority of the government, new and serious difficulties would present themselves.*

The first is the doubt that arises in the minds of the projectors whether or not they shall be so fortunate as to obtain the necessary permission. With their project, promising as it appears to them, and capable, as they believe it to be, of yielding a handsome return to the investment, calculated, as it is, to meet the approbation of the capitalists upon whom they depend for carrying it out; will it be favorably regarded by the council of state, strangers as they are, by the nature of their avocations, to the ordinary course of commercial operations? Will these councillors, with so many other objects to claim their attention, give to the examination of the plan submitted to them, and in which they feel no interest, the same care that has been given to it by the projectors, or the same that they would give to one that directly affected their own interests? Can the parties interested make themselves heard and understood in this council, placed, as it is, so far above, and so distant from them? for Paris is not France! Can they ever reasonably hope to do so? Whatever may be the object in view, unless, perchance, the establishment of one of those rare institutions called for by unanimous public opinion, it is obvious that their chance is small, and yet it is with this minimum of chance that they have to commence their operations. Such a prospect is surely enough to make even the boldest hesitate, and to stifle in the germ the major part of the conceptions, however valuable, that would require the aid of such associations to carry them into effect.

* It will be seen that the course of things here described, resembles very much that in several of the states, particularly in those south of New England, where charters are deemed privileges to be granted to the few, while the many are debarred from availing themselves of the advantages derived from this particular mode of trading. [*Translator.*

Suppose, in the face of all these difficulties, the projectors to decide resolutely to attempt to carry out their scheme. To do so, they must commence by the devotion of their time and their labor; they must adopt measures that are both tedious and expensive, and this they must do with a perfect knowledge that it is likely to be both time and money wasted. Even this, however, is not all. The necessity for this application to the council of state gives rise to new difficulties of a very serious kind.

With whom should they commence? the capitalists? or the council of state? If their project be submitted without a previous subscription of the capital, the council will refuse, and perhaps with reason, to hear them; for how could they come to any decision in regard to an association in its embryo state, of the direction or extent of which they must be entirely ignorant? If the application be first made to capitalists, what reason can be offered to induce them to second their views? It is not sufficient to inform them of the object in view—of the nature of the plan—and to offer them the management; there are other difficulties to be overcome. They find in the minds of those persons whose aid is so much desired, the same doubts that had existed in their own, and they receive probably this answer—"Your project is excellent, and your plans are well arranged, but can you obtain the consent of the council of state?" This objection meets them everywhere, and what reply can they make? To those who are familiar with the caprices of capitalists, (we trust they will pardon us the word,) and who know how weak are frequently the reasons by which they are prevented from engaging in the most useful undertakings, it is unnecessary to say that this objection constitutes one of the most serious obstacles to the formation of such associations.

To obtain the approbation of the council, or even the right of presenting themselves at its bar, the projectors must first obtain a subscription of the capital, and this is an indispensable condition; but, to induce the capitalist to subscribe, they must first obtain the assent of the council, and this is equally indispensable; and thus they find themselves inclosed in a circle beyond which they cannot pass. In what manner then can their object be attained? It is difficult to answer this question, but most easy to see that to impose such restrictions upon the exercise of any right, is almost equal to its utter annihilation.

Thus far, we have not referred, in any manner, to the spirit which the council may be disposed to exercise its extensive powers, should the projectors be so fortunate as to place themselves in a position to entitle them to be heard. The bare idea of an application to it is sufficient to alarm most persons, particularly those of the provinces, to whom a council of state would seem to be an almost unapproachable tribunal. When before it, they will find it far more strict than necessity requires, it being accustomed to extend its control much further than would appear to be warranted by the nature of its functions. It should be sufficient for it to be satisfied that what is proposed to be done is offered in good faith, without inquiring into the probability of success, of which the parties themselves should be permitted to be the sober judges; and it would be well if they would learn thus to limit the sphere of their inquiries. If the reader feel desirous of being enlightened as to the manner of proceeding, he will find some curious details in the work of M. Vincens, before referred to. We regret much that the passage is too long for quotation. After having read it, he will ask himself by what extraordinary fortune is it that such an as-

sociation does now and then see the light, having extricated itself from the extraordinary net-work in which it had been enveloped.

What then is the *societe anonyme* in France? Is it a form of association that may be made useful for the purposes of trade, or of manufacture? Certainly not. It is one that is reserved to be granted as a privilege to certain extraordinary undertakings, recommended by their magnitude, or their striking character. These alone can present themselves before the council with any chance of success; regarding these projects, public opinion is already formed, and who can calculate upon powerful support from persons in and out of office. Undertakings of this description are not very numerous; and however great their importance in the particular cases to which they are applied, they are, taken collectively, less important than that great mass of operations of a secondary character, or rather of those whose utility, however great, is less obvious to the eyes of the world at large, and, consequently, less accurately appreciated, to which this mode of association is entirely prohibited. For still stronger reasons, the adoption of this form is rendered impracticable in the case of those bold enterprises, the object of which, is the opening of distant markets, and to which it seems peculiarly applicable; for with what chance of success could their assent to the formation of such a company be asked of a council of state, whose avowed object is the enforcement of care and circumspection?

Under such circumstances, as might readily have been foreseen would be the case, the habit of association has made but little progress in France, and trade has benefited but little by it. In fact, until within a few years, when it has passed the barriers attempted to be fixed by the law, we could scarcely form an idea, from what was to be seen among us, of the result that might be obtained from an union of forces. Even now, how few in number are the companies with transferable stock that are scattered here and there about us! In England, under more favorable circumstances, though still transcribed by the law, this habit has extended itself almost universally throughout society, and has been productive of a vast increase of power. The number of associations with transferable stock is almost incalculable, and the imagination is confounded by the mass of capital which they represent, the extent of liberty which they enjoy, and the wonders they have produced. Such likewise is the case in the United States. Without referring to their almost innumerable banks, held in shares, every place of any importance presents to our view a mass of associations for almost every conceivable purpose, many of which are of gigantic extent. They are also to be found in the smaller cities, the towns, and the villages, and everywhere aiding and stimulating individual exertion. In some cases they are limited to the performance of this duty, while in others their character is more exclusive, but in all they are found aiding, by their activity, their great resources, and the facilities they afford, to the productive power, and consequently to the national wealth. How wonderful is here the development of this great principle, and how infinitely does France fall behind these nations therein!

Art. II.—THE CORN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Among the subjects which engross the public mind at the present day, no one, perhaps, is exciting more attention than the corn trade. The pecuniary interest of thousands on both sides of the Atlantic is involved in a greater or less degree in this question. Nor is this all. The philanthropist regards this subject as bearing immediately upon the comfort—the welfare of the laboring classes, especially in Great Britain. The position that the necessaries of life should be multiplied as far as possible, and should be afforded to the poor at the lowest remunerating prices, will commend itself, not only to the sympathy, but to the judgment of the community. The political economist and the philanthropist may well turn their attention to this important subject, and probably their inquiries would lead them to the same result, viz., that bread, which has justly been denominated the "staff of life," is not the most suitable subject for severe commercial restrictions.

But it is not our purpose to dwell upon this view of the subject. Our inquiry relates rather to the corn trade of the United States. In treating upon this subject, we shall naturally speak of the foreign market, and of the effect of the English corn laws upon this branch of our trade.

The United States are becoming a great agricultural people. We have no means of ascertaining the amount of grain produced in the country before the year 1840, when those who were employed to take the census, returned the amount of grain raised in the several states. It appears by these returns, that there were produced in the United States, in 1840, 84,823,700 bushels of wheat, 377,531,800 bushels of Indian corn, and 153,170,200 bushels of other grains. But, according to the agricultural report made to Congress by the Hon. H. L. Ellsworth, Commissioner of Patents, in 1844, there were grown in the United States, in 1843, 100,310,000 bushels of wheat, 496,618,000 bushels of Indian corn, and 181,390,000 bushels of other grains. The population of the United States, in 1840, was 17,069,400, and the estimated population, in 1843, was 19,183,500. From this comparison, it appears that the quantity of grain produced, hardly keeps pace with the increase of our population. This probably arises from the fact, that some of the old wheat lands are becoming exhausted, and a large per cent of our population is embarking in manufactures and the mechanic arts. This cause will continue to operate, so that, if our present protective policy remains unchanged, our production of bread-stuff will hardly keep pace with the increase of our population. Not that there is necessarily any inability to keep up this product; but the want of a market, and the national tendency of industrial pursuits, will prevent the growth of our surplus.

Of the 100,310,000 bushels of wheat, now produced in the country, fifteen-sixteenths are consumed at home, and the remaining sixteenth is sent to foreign countries. Of this product of 100,300,000 bushels of wheat, about one-seventh will be required for seed, which will bring the amount down to 85,973,000 bushels; from this, if we take one-sixteenth of the whole crop, it will reduce the quantity for home consumption to 79,705,000 bushels. On this estimate, which cannot be far from the truth, we consume 79,705,000 bushels, and export, either in wheat or its equivalent in flour, 6,268,000 bushels annually. If we were to divide the 79,705,000 bushels by our population, 19,138,500, it would give 4 16-100 bushels to each person in the country. It is perfectly obvious, however

that this is more than is consumed per head in some parts of the country, and less than what is consumed in others. Among the population engaged in commerce, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, we may safely estimate the consumption per head at 5 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. The same may be said of the population in the strictly wheat growing districts. These would comprehend nearly three-fifths of our entire population, and would consume some 57,415,000 bushels, leaving the other two-fifths nearly 3 bushels of wheat per head. There are, however, some portions of our country, where the farming population make use of Indian corn and rye for bread, and hence would not consume as much as 3 bushels of wheat per head. This is particularly true of the black population of the south. But, on the other hand, those employed as sailors, fishermen, &c., would require more than a barrel of flour, or 5 bushels of wheat a year. For instance, a soldier's ration, of a pound of flour per day, would amount to 1 6-7 barrel per year. Besides, there is a considerable quantity of flour consumed annually for starch, sizing, and manufacturing purposes.

Though the quantity of wheat grown in the country has increased considerably within the last half dozen years, the consumption in the country has increased in about the same ratio, so that the surplus for foreign export now is hardly greater than it was in 1831. Thousands who, ten years ago, consumed rye and Indian almost exclusively, now make wheat their principal bread-stuff, and this tendency is rapidly increasing. We venture, therefore, to predict that, if our present tariff policy remains undisturbed, the quantity of wheat or flour for foreign export from the United States, will hardly be more than it is at present. In our remarks upon the corn trade of the United States, we shall confine ourselves almost exclusively to wheat and wheat flour. The other grains are not exported to any great extent. Oats are annually brought into the country, and the same is true of potatoes; which, though they do not come under the designation of grain, are used for nearly the same purpose. There is an export of Indian corn and Indian meal, on an average, for the last fourteen years, of about 1,400,000 bushels, being in value $890,000, as will be seen below.

The following table will show the amount and value of Indian corn and meal exported from the United States, from 1831, to 1844, inclusive; also the value of the export to England during that period:—

Years.	Bush. corn.	Value.	Bbls. meal.	Value.	Total value.	Val. of ex. of corn & meal to England.
1831,..	571,312	$369,617	207,604	$595,434	$965,051	$136,875
1832,..	451,230	278,740	146,710	480,035	758,775	180
1833,..	487,174	337.505	146,678	534,309	871,814	2,407
1834,..	303,449	203,573	149,609	491,910	695,483	none.
1835,..	755,781	588,276	166,782	629,389	1,217,665	230
1836,..	124,791	103:702	140,917	621,560	725,262	none.
1837,..	151,276	147,982	159,435	763,652	911,637	1,396
1838,..	172,321	141,992	171,843	722,399	864,391	116
1839,..	162,306	141,095	165,672	658,421	799,516	470
1840,..	572,279	338,333	206,063	705,183	1,043,516	59,946
1841,..	535,727	312,954	232,284	692,457	995,411	7,146
1842,..	600,308	345,150	209,199	617,817	962,967	75,909
1843, 9 m.,	672,608	281,749	174,354	454,166	635,915	9
1844,..	825,160	404,008	248,382	641,028	1,045,030	38,534
Av.,....	452,537	$285,276	180,403	$614,125	$892,316	$24,515

In the above table we have the amount and value of Indian corn and corn meal exported for fourteen consecutive years. If we divide this period into two equal portions, of seven years each, we shall see that, during the first period, the average export of corn was annually 406,430 bushels, and during the second period, 498,644 bushels; and that the barrels of meal would average 159,693 annually, during the first seven years, and 201,113 during the last. It will also be seen that the total value of the export of corn and meal, during the first half of the whole period, would average $877,955 annually, and during the last half, $906,678. It will be seen by the above, that the quantity of corn and meal exported has just about kept pace with our population; but the value of these exports has fallen much below the increase of our population. While the population has increased, in seven years, about 22 per cent, the value of these exports has increased only about 3 per cent.

Another fact worthy of notice in the corn trade is, that the export of wheat and Indian corn do not seem to be governed by the same laws. From 1831 to 1832 the export of wheat fell off four-fifths, while the Indian corn exported did not fall off one-half. In 1836, 1837, and 1838, the export of wheat was merely nominal, while the import was over 5,500,000 bushels. But, notwithstanding the wheat trade runs so much against us, during those years we exported nearly the usual quantity of Indian meal, and the Indian corn did not fall off more than three-fourths. It will also be seen that the quantity exported to England has been considerable since the year 1831. But the wheat trade of the United States is the trade to which we wish to call the attention of the reader. Our average export of wheat and flour for the last fourteen years has amounted to about 5,506,000 bushels, or 1,100,000 barrels, costing $6,233,500 on an annual average; though during the same period we have imported in wheat and flour about 463,400 bushels annually upon the average. These imports were, however, mostly confined to the years 1835 to 1838, inclusive. Below, we give a table of exports and imports for the whole period specified. By the table it will be seen that the greatest export was in 1840, when we sent abroad 1,897,501 barrels of flour, and 1,720,860 bushels of wheat, valued at $11,779,098. With this single exception, our imports in 1831 were greater than they have been since. The total value of wheat and flour exported in 1831 was $10,461,715, being a sum greater by $1,879,000 than the export of wheat and flour, any year since, with the exception above mentioned. It will also be seen that, in 1837, we imported 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, at a cost of $4,276,975. It will also be seen by a comparison of imports and exports that the trade in wheat is more fluctuating than that of flour. In 1837, when we imported about 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, we exported about 320,000 barrels of flour. This arose from the fact that our commerce is so extensive that no one cause can at the same time effect our trade with all the nations with which we have commercial intercourse.

The following table will show the exports and imports of wheat and wheat flour from and into the United States, with the value of each, from 1831 to 1844, inclusive. In the column of imports it is all put down as wheat, though a part of it was imported in flour; it is carried out as wheat and reduced to bushels for convenience:—

		Exports.				Imports.	
Year.	Bbls. flour.	Value.	Bush. wheat.	Value.	Tot. val.	Bushels.	Value.
1831,	1,806,529	$9,938,445	408,910	$523,270	$10,461,715	633	$699
1832,	864,919	4,880,623	88,304	93,500	4,974,123	1,191	1,180
1833,	955,768	5,613,010	32,221	29,592	5,642,602	1,697	1,716
1834,	835,352	4,520,781	36,948	39,598	4,560,379	1,307	1,295
1835,	779,396	4,394,777	47,762	51,405	4,446,182	311,805	268,623
1836,	505,400	3,572,599	2,062	2,062	3,574,561	650,629	565,500
1837,	318,719	2,987,209	17,303	27,206	3,014,415	4,000,000	4,276,976
1838,	448,161	3,603,299	6,291	8,125	3,617,724	927,180	940,838
1839,	923,151	6,925,170	96,325	144,191	7,069,361	41,725	57,747
1840,	1,897,501	10,143,615	1,720,860	1,635,483	11,779,098	1,436	1,069
1841,	1,515,817	7,759,646	868,585	822,881	8,582,527	652	900
1842,	1,283,602	7,375,356	817,958	916,616	8,292 308	4,153	2,796
1843,*	841,474	3,763,073	311,685	264,109	4,027,182	12,121	8,542
1844,	1,438,603	6,732,488	558,607	500,410	7,232,898	.....	.....
Av.,.	1,029,593	$5,872,149	358,130	$361,317	$6,233,533	463,425	$463,529

From the exhibit contained in the above table, it will be seen that, for the whole period of fourteen years, our export of wheat has not increased so rapidly as our population. In 1831, with a population of 13,000,000, our export of wheat and flour was $10,461,000. In 1840, when our population was 17,000,000, our export of the same articles amounted to $11,779,000. If the value of our exports had kept pace with our population, it would have amounted, in 1840, to 136,679,000, being nearly $2,000,000 more than the actual export for that year. Thus, if we take the two favored years within the whole period, we shall find that the value of exports from 1831 to 1840 has increased only about 12 per cent, while the population increased about 30 per cent. Or if we take the period of five years, from 1840 to 1844, inclusive, we shall find the export to have fallen off about 39 per cent, while the population has increased about 16 per cent. If the export had increased since 1840 at the same rate as the population, it would, in 1844, have amounted to $13,500,000; or if the export had increased with the population since 1831, it would, in 1844, have amounted to $16,700,000, which is 130 per cent more than the value actually exported.

From this view of the subject, it appears that our population is gaining rapidly upon our exports. But we all know that there may be a fallacy in reasoning from one particular year to another. There may be causes which operate at particular times, which may not occur again; and, hence, no one comparison is decisive upon a subject of this nature. The export in 1831 was unusually large—larger by 43 per cent than the average for the two preceding years. This was owing to a partial failure of the crop, in Great Britain, one of our principal markets; and consequently the increased price. But, from 1832 to 1838, as we learn from Tooke, a standard writer upon prices, the crops in Great Britain were so abundant, that she produced all that was necessary for home consumption —nay, so great was the supply, that wheat was given to domestic animals, and used for distillation. This circumstance induced the farmers to sow less, and the succession of two or three unfavorable seasons reduced the quantity and increased the price. During this scarcity in Great Britain, and on the continent generally, the crops in this country were unusually good; and hence the large export in 1840. These statements,

* The commercial year 1843 consists of only three quarters, or nine months.

made on the best authority, are confirmed by the prices of wheat in England during the period spoken of. The price of wheat in Great Britain in different years has been as follows:—

	s.	d.			s.	d.	
In 1830,.....	64	3	per quarter.	In 1838,.....	64	7	per quarter.
1831,.....	66	4	"	1839,.....	70	8	"
1832,.....	58	8	"	1840,.....	67	4	"
1833,.....	52	11	"	1841,.....	64	4	"
1834,.....	46	2	"	1842,.....	56	8	"
1835,.....	39	4	"	1843,.....	48	0	"
1836,.....	48	6	"	1844,.....	49	0	"
1837,.....	55	10	"				

This view of the prices in Great Britain will serve to show in some degree, why our exports were greater in 1831 and 1840 than ordinary.

From every view we are able to take of this important subject, we are confirmed in the position which we have already taken—that our surplus of wheat and flour for foreign transportation does not increase so rapidly as our population. And, as we have before said, if the present protective policy of the country should continue, we doubt whether our export will increase at all. As manufactures and the mechanic arts increase, the home consumption will keep pace with the increase of population. Besides, we all know, that for the last five or six years our crops have been unsually good. But this will not always last. We may naturally expect that a succession of small crops may follow a succession of large ones; and even a considerable falling off in the crop for a single year would effect our exports for at least two years.

The impression seems to be very general among us, that the market of Great Britain is the principal one for our bread-stuffs; and hence we hear such bitter complaints of the English corn law. But we apprehend that the importance of the English market is greatly overrated. For the last fourteen years, our average export of flour has been 1,029,593 barrels, while our export to Great Britain during the same period has been only about 170,000 barrels, being less than one-sixth of the whole amount; and the same is true of the export of wheat. We give below a table of exports of wheat and flour to the principal markets for the last thirteen years, together with the total export to all foreign markets for the same period.

Table of Exports of Wheat and Flour to the principal markets, together with the total exports to all foreign markets, for thirteen consecutive years.

	England.		Br. American Colonies.		Cuba.	
Years.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flr.
1831,.....	362,153	865,744	12,505	150,795	.....	97,999
1832,.....	55,050	95,868	20,777	135,640	.....	98,248
1833,.....	.....	21,707	31,421	168,127	.....	119,197
1834,.....	.....	19,487	23,247	134,975	.....	102,837
1835,.....	.....	5,376	.....	76,405	.....	93,511
1836,.....	.....	161	2,082	42,300	.....	92,390
1837,.....	.....	.....	.....	23,316	.....	55,537
1838,.....	.....	8,295	6,076	29,591	.....	79,681
1839,.....	6,033	167,589	72,113	149,407	.....	90,459
1840,.....	607,108	605,778	1,066,604	432,356	788	69,819
1841,.....	119,854	205,144	695,389	377,806	.....	69,387
1842,.....	143,330	204,896	655,503	369,048	4,179	46,846
1843,.....	.....	14,214	293,842	190,322	.....	29,437
Average,.	99,502	170,297	221,498	175,891	382	80,411

TABLE—Continued.

Years.	*Brazil.* Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	*British West Indies.* Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.	*Tot. Ex. to all For. m'kts.* Bush. wheat.	Bbls. flour.
1831,.....	.....	198,870	.....	100,382	408,445	1,806,529
1832,.....	.....	103,289	.....	100,167	83,304	864,919
1833,.....	.....	259,536	.....	100,057	32,221	955,768
1834,.....	.....	152,603	.....	95,816	36,948	835,352
1835,.....	.....	161,460	.....	118,307	47,762	779,396
1836,.....	.....	118,470	2,062	70,305	2,062	505,400
1837,.....	.....	60,480	.....	68,323	17,303	318,719
1838,.....	.....	125,275	137	75,524	6,291	448,161
1839,.....	.....	177,337	14,129	139,340	96,325	923,151
1840,.....	.....	197,823	33,743	232,329	1,720,860	1,897,501
1841,.....	16,457	282,406	41,116	246,465	868,585	1,515,817
1842,.....	.....	189,317	14,920	237,478	817,958	1,283,602
1843,.....	.....	192,454	17,399	170,577	311,685	841,474
Average,.	1,266	170,716	9,500	135,005	342,709	997,771

By the above table it will be seen that the market of England is, by no means, our only market for bread-stuffs. During this period Brazil has taken, upon an average, 289 barrels of flour more than England, and Cuba has taken nearly half as much as England. We have sent, in the same period, the annual average of 5,062 barrels more to the British American colonies than to England herself, and the British West Indies have taken only about 26 per cent less than the mother country. It appears, by this tabular view of our exports, that England has, during this period, taken only 17 per cent of our export of flour, and about 29 per cent of our export of wheat. But it is obvious that a portion of wheat and flour sent to the British American colonies, finds its way into Great Britain. By the British tables it will be seen that the excess of wheat brought into England from her American Colonies, over the amount sent from England to these colonies, would average, from 1829 to 1842, inclusive, 152,429 bushels a year, and that the excess of flour would average 51,608 barrels. By adding this to the quantity which we have sent direct to England, it would make the average of wheat 251,931 bushels, and flour 221,935 barrels. It is, however, probably true that, in 1843 and 1844, the proportion of wheat and flour which have gone to England through Canada, has been somewhat greater than in preceding years. We might safely estimate the average of wheat up to this present time at 260,000 bushels, and the flour at 240,000 barrels. According to this estimate, about 76 per cent of our whole export of wheat, and about 24 per of our exports of flour, goes to the British market.

Since Great Britain is our greatest market for bread-stuffs, it becomes important to inquire, what are the prospects with reference to this market in future? The present consumption of Great Britain may be estimated at 125,000,000 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. The quantity of wheat and flour imported for home consumption, from 1829 to 1842, inclusive, would average 10,352,500 bushels annually; and of this, the average of 727,126 bushels came from her colonies—leaving the annual average of 9,625,370 bushels imported from foreign nations. But the average importations into Great Britain for home consumption, for the last five years, has been, from foreign nations, 19,148,265 bushels annually, and from her colonies 1,008,190 bushels annually—making a total average of 20,156,455 bushels. When we take into view the vast improvements in English agriculture which are now going on, it is safe to

say that her grain crop keeps pace with her population. Drummond, an approved English writer, in a work recently published in London, tells us that, owing to the advantages of a new machine, seed is sown less thickly than formerly, which, of itself, will supply some five or six millions of bushels of the deficiency of her wheat crop. If this be true, it is an important fact in relation to her demand upon foreign nations for a supply. This saving of seed will be equal to about one-fourth of her deficit, and about four times as much as our whole export to England, direct, and through her colonies.

The following table, showing the imports of wheat and flour into Great Britain for home consumption for fourteen years, is taken from a report made to the Parliament in 1843:—

Years.	Foreign. *Bushels.*	Colonial. *Bushels.*	Total. *Bushels.*
1829,.....	11,504,768	68,840	11,572,608
1830,.....	13,338,304	484,472	13,822,776
1831,.....	10,952,352	1,101,568	12,053,920
1832,.....	1,510,160	1,551,880	3,062,040
1833,.....	10,560	661,648	672,208
1834,.....	2,320	517,472	519,792
1835,.....	960	227,440	228,400
1836,.....	8,360	232,496	240,856
1837,.....	1,686,176	293,000	1,979,176
1838,.....	14,550,624	237,176	14,787,800
1839,.....	21,591,848	101,936	21,693,784
1840,.....	18,291,096	910,392	19,201,488
1841,.....	19,105,264	2,076,808	21,182,072
1842,.....	22,202,512	1,714,648	23,917,160
Average,.....	9,625,378	727,126	10,352,504

From this table it appears that, for the last five years, she has imported on an average 20,000,000 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour. Of this 20,000,000 bushels, about one-twentieth only is from the United States direct; or if we add to this what finds its way into Great Britain through Canada, it would not amount to more than one-tenth. The amount sent to England from the principal grain growing nations, in 1841, will be seen below.

There were imported into Great Britain, in 1841, 22,617,500 bushels of wheat, or its equivalent in flour, from the different nations as follow:—

Russia,.....	bushels	498,205
Sweden,.....		4,410
Denmark,.....		1,915,272
Prussia,.....		7,134,400
Germany,.....		5,295,674
Holland,.....		815,964
Belgium,.....		228,620
France,.....		1,643,932
Italy and Islands,.....		901,600
United States,.....		1,107,840
Colonies and other nations,.....		3,071,583

Here we have the quantity of wheat and flour (in bushels) brought into England in 1841. We have selected that year, as furnishing a fair average of the imports into England for the last five years, and, at least, a fair average of our exports abroad and to that kingdom. It will be seen that

Russia supplies nearly half as much as the United States, that Holland supplies more than three-fourths as much, and that Italy and the Italian islands nearly as much; while France supplies about 48 per cent, Denmark 72 per cent, Germany 378 per cent, and Prussia 544 per cent, more than the United States. It is true that, if we include the grain which reaches Great Britain through Canada, our supply of the English market will be much greater. But even then, it would not amount to more than one-tenth of the English supply. Nor have we any good reason to believe that our export to Great Britain will materially increase. We have already alluded to the fact that the agriculture of Great Britain was improving more rapidly than the agriculture of this country. The improved mode of seeding will supply a part of her deficiency. Besides, the wheat crop in England, in 1844, has been better than the average, while in this country there has been a falling off of, at least, 5,000,000 bushels.

England now obtains her supply, and, in all probability, will continue to obtain it principally from the continent. The north of Europe possesses several advantages over us in the trade with Great Britain. Labor is so exceedingly cheap, (being about one shilling per day, without board,) that they can undersell us in almost any production. The following are the prices of wheat per quarter at the principal European marts, for a series of years.

Year.	Dantzic.	Hamburg.	Amsterdam.	Antwerp.	Odessa.	General average.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
1830,.....	38 11	34 9	41 4	34 8	24 10	34 10
1831,.....	42 11	43 5	42 1	39 2	26 0	38 8
1832,.....	34 0	34 2	40 2	32 10	22 8	32 9
1833,.....	30 3	25 3	32 0	20 0	26 10	26 10
1834,.....	25 5	24 7	24 0	18 9	28 0	24 1
1835,.....	22 2	23 0	28 1	19 9	21 0	22 9
1836,.....	25 3	28 11	28 0	25 3	18 11	25 3
1837,.....	26 6	28 8	29 10	25 7	18 5	25 9
1838,.....	34 7	42 8	44 0	36 0	23 8	38 2
1839,.....	34 8	48 0	49 0	54 0	29 0	42 4
1840,.....	39 0	47 0	40 0	50 0	25 10	40 4
1841,.....	44 9	36 0	39 0	54 0	26 10	40 3
1842,.....	40 1	40 5	40 7	53 0	23 8	39 2
Average,.	33 8	35 1	36 11	35 6	24 3	33 3

By the foregoing table it will be seen that the average price of wheat per bushel, during the period named, at Dantzic, is 92 cents; at Hamburg, 96 cents; at Amsterdam, 101 cents; at Antwerp, 97 cents; at Odessa, 67 cents; and that the general average amounts 90 cents per bushel.

The price of wheat at our ports, during the same period, was as follows:—

In 1830,.....	$1 15	per bushel.	In 1837,..... $1 83 per bushel.
1831,.....	1 18	"	1838,..... 1 54 "
1832,.....	1 15	"	1839,..... 1 42 "
1833,.....	1 13	"	1840,..... 1 10 "
1834,.....	1 08	"	1841,..... 1 03 "
1835,.....	1 19	"	1842,..... 1 16 "
1836,.....	1 44	"	

The average of the above prices is $1 26 per bushel, being 36 cents more per bushel at our ports, than at the above-mentioned ports in Europe.

From this comparison of prices, it will be seen that the odds are fearfully against us. How then can we compete with the north of Europe? Certainly, not in the first cost of the grain. And how is it with transportation or freight? Have we the advantage of them in this respect? By official documents laid before the British Parliament it appears that, during the above period, the freight from these ports to Great Britain was, on an average, 11 cents per bushel. Mr. Ellsworth, in his report to Congress, in 1843, estimates the freight from our ports to England at 35 or 36 cents per cwt. Wheat cannot weigh less than 56 lbs. per bushel, and hence cannot be freighted to England for less than 17 or 18 cents per bushel. The difference in freight and in first cost, would make a balance against us of 42 cents per bushel. But, as the year 1838 was one of uncommonly high prices for grain in this country, we will omit that year in our estimate, which will reduce this balance down to about 37 cents per bushel; and from this we should deduct about 9 cents as the difference of exchange, which would bring the difference down to 28 cents on the bushel.

It may, perhaps, be thought that we prove too much, and show from this data that we can send no grain to Great Britain. But every practical man knows that, in the course of trade, articles will be imported or exported from one country to another when the prices in the two countries would seem to forbid it. Our merchants are frequently indebted abroad, and must send forward something to meet their payments. Ships are frequently going out with but a partial cargo, and will take freight exceedingly low. And besides, our wheat is generally sent to England in the form of flour, thereby reducing weight and the cost of transportation some 18 per cent. These are the causes which come in and neutralize the difference in prices, so as to enable us to send our wheat and flour to the mother country. We mention these things to show that our corn trade with Great Britain is, after all, rather the result of accidental causes than otherwise. It has been so for years past, and will be so for years to come.

During the years 1843 and 1844, wheat has been cheaper in this country than it has been before for a great number of years, ranging from 90 cents to 1 dollar, making an average of 95 cents per bushel. During this period, the prices in Europe have been proportionably low. During last autumn, the price of wheat at Dantzic was only 75 cents; at Hamburg, 82 cents; at Rostack, 77 cents, free on board; at Odessa, 59 cents, free on board. The English consul writes from Odessa at the close of 1842 as follows:—"Under the present circumstances—extraordinary low freight, and favorable exchange—a shipment of the best wheat could now be made and delivered in England on the following terms, viz:—

	s.	*d.*	
First cost,.....	22	6	per quarter.
Charge for loading,.....	2	5	"
Freight,.....	6	7	"
Insurance and factorage in England,.....	4	0	"
Total,.....	35	6	per quarter."

According to this estimate, wheat from the Black sea can be sold in England at 97 cents per bushel, and since that period wheat at Odessa has fallen 12 or 15 cents per bushel. The Farmers' Magazine, publish-

ed in London, for January, 1845, informs us that, up to the last of November, there had been shipped from Dantzic to Great Britain 2,365,544 bushels of wheat, which could be bought for from 70 to 82 cents, and shipped for 11 cents, enabling them to sell it in England for 87 cents per bushel free of duty; and that wheat from Odessa could be sold in Great Britain, independent of the duty, for from 75 to 80 cents per bushel.

With such competitors we have no great reason to expect that our corn trade with Great Britain will increase. Nor is there any occasion for an increase. Our surplus, as we have already remaked, is about stationary, and we are perpetually seeking new markets abroad, where we dispose of some of our bread-stuffs. Nor is it probable that the demand in England will increase. England now requires only about 20,000,000 bushels annually, and the Parliament reports show that the continent can supply the whole of that amount.

We have been the more particular upon this branch of the subject, because an impression seems to be somewhat general, especially in the grain growing states, that, if Great Britain would repeal her corn laws, we should supply her whole market. But how such a repeal could give us the English market, is more than we can comprehend. The prices on the continent are lower, as we have seen, than they are in this country, and freight is less from the Baltic and North sea than from the United States. It is true that her population would consume more wheat, if the price were reduced by the repeal of her restrictions. But the grain growing states in the north of Europe can easily increase their product with the English demand. Another effect of the repeal of the corn laws upon our country would be this. By reducing the price of living in Great Britain, it would reduce the price of labor, and so enable the manufacturers to produce their fabrics at a less price. The effect of this would be to break down our own manufactures, and thereby destroy the home market for the corn and wheat of the grain growing states.

But we need not speculate upon the effect of the repeal of the corn laws. These laws will not be repealed. When this subject was brought before Parliament, in June last, it was voted down by an overwhelming majority—328 to 124, being a majority of 204. With this fact before us, we may rest assured that Great Britain will not depart from her present policy. Nor have we, as a nation, any reason to desire such a repeal. With the present system we enjoy a kind of monopoly in the corn trade. We can send our wheat into Canada for a mere nominal duty, where it is ground, and then sent to England on the favored terms of colonial flour. This trade through Canada is increasing. The London Farmers' Magazine, for August, 1844, says that 300,000 barrels of flour may be expected from Montreal in the shipping season, being about three times the usual quantity. This flour pays only a nominal duty of about 19 cents per barrel, while the same flour sent from this country would be subjected to a duty of $1 13 per barrel. This privilege of the Canadian trade is worth more to us than a repeal of the corn laws. This trade is increasing, and in a few years will probably become an object of great importance to us.

But, after all, the home market is the great market for our bread-stuff. What becomes of the vast amount of wheat that is grown in the country? The product, we have already seen, is about 100,000,000 bushels, and only about 6,300,000 bushels are sent abroad. The state of Ohio alone

produces three times as much as we export annually; and the little state of Delaware produces twice as much Indian corn as our annual export. It is not possible to state the exact amount of wheat which is consumed in the country by those engaged in other pursuits than agriculture. If we take those engaged in manufactures and trades, in mining, in the fisheries, in all their forms, in commerce and navigation in all their varieties, and the learned professions, with their families and dependants, it would amount to one-quarter of our population, viz.—5,000,000 persons, who are not producers, but consumers of bread-stuffs. These will consume one barrel of flour, or five bushels of wheat per head—making a constant market for 25,000,000 bushels of wheat, equal to about one-fourth of our whole product. The New England states alone consume annually 1,400,000 barrels of flour, or 7,000,000 bushels of wheat more than they produce; which is about 700,000 bushels more than our entire export.

From this view of the subject, it will be seen that the great object of the grain growing states is to cherish our home market. Any policy which builds up manufactures, which encourages the mechanic arts, and multiplies callings and increases the number which engages in them—in a word, that policy which diverts labor from agriculture, promotes the interests of the farmer. Agricultural products are so abundant that they hardly command remunerating prices. Let a portion of our population now engaged in that calling be diverted to other pursuits, and the necessary effect would be to increase the price of agricultural products, and so give the yeomanry of the country a greater reward for their toil.

The value of our corn trade is, we are confident, greatly overrated by the thousands. That the reader may see the relative value of several of our exports for a series of years, we will give below the amount in separate columns.

EXPORTS OF SEVERAL ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCTION, FROM 1821 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Fisheries. *Value.*	Beef and pork.* *Value.*	Cotton Piece Goods. *Value.*	Other manufactures. *Value.*	Wheat and flour. *Value.*
1831,.....	$1,889,472	$2,596,422	$1,126,313	$4,677,886	$10,461,715
1832,.....	2,558,538	2,993,103	1,229,574	4,194,440	4,974,123
1833,.....	2,402,469	3,368,086	2,532,517	4,355,712	5,642,602
1834,.....	2,071,493	2,741,319	2,085,994	4,627,391	4,560,379
1835,.....	2,174,524	2,580,102	2,858,681	4,079,308	4,446,182
1836,.....	2,660,058	2,196,493	2,255,734	4,660,014	3,574,561
1837,.....	2,711,452	1,981,118	2,831,473	4,980,375	3,014,415
1838,.....	3,175,576	1,998,768	3,758,755	5,251,603	3,617,724
1839,.....	1,917,968	2,276,426	2,975,033	5,044,138	7,069,361
1840,.....	3,198,370	2,729,026	3,549,607	7,064,160	11,779,098
1841,.....	2,846,851	4,031,270	3,122,546	7,653,040	8,582,527
1842,.....	2,823,610	4,230,226	2,970,690	6,799,167	8,292,308
1843,.....	2,112,548	3,721,937	3,223,550	4,131,176	4,027,182
Average,.	2,503,763	2,880,330	2,655,420	5,116,031	6,149,397

It will be seen by the above table, that wheat and flour, which seem to be regarded as the great and almost the only article of export, except cotton and tobacco, averages only about $6,000,000—less than two and a half times as much as either the fisheries, beef and pork, or cotton piece goods. It will also be seen that the average of manufactures exported,

* Including tallow, butter, cheese, lard, bacon, hams, &c., &c.

exceeds the average of wheat and flour by more than $1,500,000; and that, for the last two years, cotton piece goods alone have amounted to more than half as much as the export of wheat and flour. We have taken the divisions or classification of exports as we find them in the Commercial Document; but it is evident that many other articles than those set down as manufactures might, with perfect propriety, be classed under that head. We will take the year 1842 as an example. Spermaceti candles, $318,997, are placed under the head of fisheries; boards, shingles, staves and hewn timber, $2,203,537; all manufactures of wood, $623,718; tar, pitch, rosin and turpentine, $743,329; pot and pearl ashes, $882,741; are placed under the head of products of the forest. It is manifest, however, that some of these are strictly, and others substantially manufactured articles; and these, for that year, amounted to the sum of $4,228,993; if these articles were added to the manufactures, it would make the value of manufactures exported annually, at least, one-third larger than the export of wheat and flour. We mention this fact, to show that our corn trade with foreign nations is not of a character so all-absorbing as some appear to suppose. It is an important trade, it is true; but there are others equally important.

The true policy for the United States, or for any people, is to supply its own wants, and, as far as practicable, render itself independent of foreign nations. Our prosperity in peace, and our success in war, depend, in a great degree, upon our ability to furnish for ourselves all that is necessary for our comfort and happiness—all that may contribute to our independence. We have, within our extended territory and diversified climate, all the elements of national wealth and greatness. If we cultivate the means which a merciful Providence has put within our reach, encourage our own industry, and develop our own resources, we shall be able not only to produce the bread which we eat, but the clothing which we wear. And the prosperity of the country depends upon the due encouragement of all classes and callings—that they may prove co-workers together in the great cause of national independence.

Art. III.—THE ERIE CANAL ENLARGEMENT.

When the Erie canal was constructed, it was calculated that boats of thirty tons would be best adapted to its navigation; such a boat it was expected would be drawn by one horse. The size of the boat was to be seven feet wide, draw three feet of water, and be seventy-five feet long. In view of this kind of boat, the locks were made ninety feet long, and fifteen feet in width in the chamber, designed to pass two boats at a time. A model boat on this plan was built and put in operation on the first opening of the middle section of the canal. The model was taken from English canal boats. It was doubtless considered that experience in England had led to this, as best adapted to canal navigation. The model, however, was never copied on the Erie canal. There would, probably, have been some experimenting on the model plan, had not the first navigation of the canal been made with the Durham boats, that had been in use on the Mohawk river. As soon as the canal was opened, these river boats, being ready, entered the canal, and engaged more or less in its navigation. The

boats then built for the canal, followed more the form of the river boats than the model canal boat.

The consequence has been, that no boats have been used in the navigation of this canal that would admit of two passing a lock at the same time. At the time the Erie canal was commenced, there were intelligent men, who advanced the opinion, that it would not be capable of accommodating the freight that would ultimately seek this channel for market. When the subject of dimensions was discussed by the canal commissioners and engineers, they decided on the original size, as being, under all the circumstances, best calculated to meet the interests of the enterprise. The novelty, at that time, of such undertakings, the great magnitude of the work, and the incredulity of a large portion of the citizens as to its success and usefulness, no doubt, produced a cautious action on the part of the commissioners in settling this question. The friends of the enterprise were generally satisfied with their decision. Accustomed to view the power of a horse as sufficient to draw but half or three-quarters of a ton, an improvement that would increase his capacity to 30 tons, seemed to reach all the economy that could be expected.

The dimensions of this canal were 28 feet in width at bottom, 40 feet at top water, and 4 feet deep.

The necessity of economising the expenditures, and the want of experience, led to many errors in the original construction of this work. Among these may be mentioned that of laying the canal, to a great extent, on a low level, as compared with the adjacent country, and the streams that passed it. By this means, numerous small streams, and some large ones, emptied their waters directly into the canal, and deposited more or less of sand, mud, and gravel on its bottom. This deposit had to be removed mostly in the spring of the year, before navigation was opened; and, being necessarily a difficult and expensive operation, was rarely done so as to give the navigation the benefit of a full depth of water. The location of locks, particularly at Cohoes, and the narrow and crooked channel of the canal, at Little Falls, and other places, contribute much to impair the navigation. Under these circumstances, the rapidly increasing trade had so filled the canal, in 1833, that measures to improve the navigation were required to meet its wants.

In May, 1834, the legislature authorised the canal commissioners to double the locks between Albany and Syracuse. The commissioners, during that season, had surveys and examinations made to carry out this measure. This gave rise to a discussion of the question, whether the second set of locks should not be adapted to a canal of larger dimensions, with such improvements in its general character as were practicable? At this time, no attention of consequence appeared to have been given to other considerations, than what was sufficient to afford the necessary capacity to the trade—economy in the traction of boats was not generally regarded. At that time, I was engaged as the engineer of the Chenango canal. The late governor, Wm. C. Bouck, was, at that time, a canal commissioner, and had charge of that canal. With Mr. Bouck I had frequent conversations in relation to the improvements contemplated on the Erie canal. Having an intimate knowledge of the greatest portion of the Erie canal, and knowing the necessity of many improvements, it appeared to me important that nothing should be done until the whole subject was well considered. The trade had increased beyond the high-

est expectation of its friends, and had every prospect of going on increasing for a long time to come. It appeared to me that three considerations were important to be kept in view:—first, to provide a capacity that would meet the ultimate wants of the trade; second, to provide the most economical transportation; and, third, to provide for a class of boats that could be towed safely and economically on the Hudson, thereby saving the expense, delay, and loss consequent on transhipment.

Mr. Bouck took a deep interest in this enterprise, and requested me to investigate the question relating to economy of transportation. In January, 1835, I addressed a letter to him, giving the result of my investigations. This letter he submitted to the canal committee of the assembly, who appended it to their report of that session. In that letter, I endeavored to show that, on a canal of 70 feet width at surface, and 7 feet deep, with locks 16 feet wide, and 110 feet long in the chamber, the power of traction required would be about 53 per cent per ton—and that the total cost of transportation would be 50 per cent, or one half—of that required on the Erie canal at that time.

This investigation many persons were disposed to question, both at that time and subsequently—denying that it would be realized in practice. I have never known, however, that any one has entered into any investigations to prove its fallacy; nor have I ever doubted that this economy in transportation, on the completion of the enlargement on this scale, as finally settled upon by the Canal Board, would be fully realized. So long, however, as the work remains unfinished, the question in relation to this canal cannot be practically settled.

But the value of this kind of improvement has not escaped the vigilant eye of private enterprise. Incorporated companies have turned their attention to it for the purpose of increasing the capacity, and economising the expense, of transportation. The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company have carried an improvement of this kind to such an extent as to afford very interesting results. I will introduce their experiment with a few general remarks on the Delaware and Hudson canal.

This canal commences at tide water, at Rondout, near the west bank of the Hudson river, runs through Ulster, Sullivan, and part of Orange county, in this state, to the Delaware river, near Carpenter's Point, a distance of 60 miles, thence up the Delaware, about 22 miles, to the mouth of the Lackawaxen river; crossing the Delaware, it follows the valley of the Lackawaxen, in Pennsylvania, about 25 miles, to the village of Honesdale. The total length is about 108 miles, and has —— feet lockage in 110 locks. At Honesdale, the canal meets the Carbondale railroad, by which the coal of the Lackawana valley is there brought to it. The main object of the canal was the coal trade. The canal was commenced in 1825; in the fall of 1829 it was opened for navigation; about 8,000 tons of coal were brought to market, through it, that year. That portion of the route lying in the valleys of the Lackawaxen, Delaware, and lower Rondout rivers, was of a very difficult and expensive character for a canal. Those valleys are narrow, and bounded by steep and high hills —to a large extent, rock rising from the water's edge to several hundred feet in height. The enterprise, at the time the work was begun, required the most energetic and persevering efforts to surmount the natural obstacles it had to meet, and to sustain the means necessary, in the face of a strong public sentiment, which had arrayed itself against it.

It is but simple justice to the managers of this work, to say they evinced, under great discouragements, an eminent degree of devotion, ability and perseverance, in completing a work that has conferred great benefits on the city of New York. Although other avenues to the coal fields of Pennsylvania have since been extensively opened, and the price of coal greatly reduced, it will be obvious, on the least reflection, that this avenue, connecting with the tide water of the Hudson, affords a highly important competitor to more distant channels, and must do much in regulating the price of that article. The canal was made generally 20 feet wide on the bottom, 32 feet on the surface, (in some parts 36 feet,) and 4 feet depth of water. The locks are 76 feet long between the gates, and 9 feet wide. It was designed for boats of 30 tons. At the time it was projected, it was not supposed its annual business would exceed 150,000 tons. In consequence of the increasing demand for coal, and the importance of improving the means and the economy of transit, the company turned their attention, in 1842, to the subject of enlarging their canal. The plan submitted by R. F. Lord, Esq., their engineer, was to raise the water one foot, making the canal 5 feet deep instead of 4 feet. By this proceeding, its top width would be increased from 32 feet to 35 or 36 feet, according to the slope of the banks. The cross section of the water-way of the original canal was 104 square feet; and as enlarged, 137½ to 140 square feet, according to the slope. Taking 139 as the average, the enlarged section is about 36 per cent greater than the original section. This plan of enlargement was commenced in the latter part of the season of 1842. In the spring of 1843, the work had progressed so far, that they began to give the canal increased depth of water. This course was proceeded in by a gradual process, continuing through the season, but not reaching the full plan of improvement during that year. From this partial condition of the alteration, the boats increased their average tonnage from 31 tons to 35 tons, in the year 1843. The quantity of coal brought down the canal that season, (1843,) was 227,605 tons. At the opening of navigation, in 1844, owing to the unsettled condition of the new work, and the effect of frost on recently raised banks, the water was not put on the full height to which it had been carried the fall previous. As the season advanced, the water was gradually raised; and, in autumn, of that year, was brought to the full depth of 5 feet. There were three classes of boats used for navigating the canal that season (1844):—First, the old boats, without alteration; second, the old boats, raised, so as to give them increased draft of water; and, third, new boats, built for the enlargement.

The average tonnage of the 1st class (for 1844) has been $36\frac{7}{10}$ tons.
" " 2d " " $39\frac{8}{10}$
" " 3d " " $42\frac{1}{2}\frac{3}{0}$
The average for all the boats has been..... $40\frac{9}{10}$
The total quantity of coal brought down the past season was..... 251,000 tons.

The following will show the influence of this improvement on the price of freight:—

The price per ton, in 1842, before the improvement was brought into use, was..... $1 34
The price, in 1844, the improvement fully in use only the latter part of the season,..... 0 97

This success has induced the company to decide on a further enlargement of their work. The new boats, of which 135 were in use during the autumn, when the full depth of water was enjoyed, carried 45 tons, and upwards. The engineer has informed me, that these boats, during the time the water was full height, were navigated by the same power that had always been employed on the old boats, previous to the enlargement, to carry an average of 31 tons—that is, by one horse. They have a regulation on this canal, by which boats that perform their trips in nine days are paid a higher price per ton than when a longer time is taken. This rule has long been established, and the object is to maintain greater regularity in the delivery of coal. The boatmen, therefore, have an inducement to use all diligence in navigating their boats.

The new boats, with 45 tons, on the completed improvement, have made their trips quite as easily within the time as on the old navigation, with 31 tons; and hence it is estimated, the cost of transportation will be reduced from $1 34, in 1842, to 90 cents, in 1845. Further, the saving in the price of freight, in the years 1843 and 1844, has more than re-imbursed the expense of the enlargement.

This experiment, which appears to have been very carefully observed, shows that an enlargement of the section of the canal of 36 per cent, has increased the capacity of boats navigating it 45 per cent, and this without at all increasing the cost of traction, or the hands to manage the boats. Comparing the price of transportation, that on the enlarged canal, is 67 per cent of the cost on the old canal. Here we see that a saving of one-third the expense of transportation has been effected on a canal, by enlarging its sectional area 36 per cent.

This canal, as enlarged, has not the sectional area required for the most favorable traction of a boat of 45 tons, and, consequently, more tractile power is required, than would be necessary if it was the most favorable section; but, notwithstanding the transportation derives great advantage from the measure of improvement, the boats for this canal, from their form and size, do not require the same relative section for 45 tons, as they do for 31 tons.

In the calculations of the expense of transportation before alluded to for the Erie canal, the relation of the sectional areas of the orginal form to that of the proposed 7 feet canal, are as 1 to 2.94; or, the enlarged canal is nearly 200 per cent greater area than the original size. This measure of enlargement was to give the most favorable traction, or one-half the cost per ton on the old canal. It was regarded as important to an economical transportation, with large boats, in a crowded and promiscuous trade, that the section of canal should be liberal, not only to favor their traction, but to allow adequate freedom in their movement in passing each other, and more fully to feel their rudders. It is obvious, a boat navigating a comparatively shallow and narrow canal will not obey its rudder as readily, or be as easily managed, as on a broad and deep channel.

The experience on the Delaware and Hudson canal, has shown that an enlargement of 36 per cent, has reduced the cost of transportation 33 per cent; we are, therefore, led to the conclusion, that an enlargement of the Erie canal of 200 per cent, will reduce the cost of transportation, at least, 50 per cent. Boats for the large canal would be advantageously towed on the Hudson, saving all the delay, expenses of

transhipment and consequent breakage, and one set of agencies, which it is believed would save full 50 per cent of Hudson river charges, and the delay incidental to transhipment. The tolls on the canal are, probably, nearly equal (taking the general average) to the cost of transportation at this time; the saving, therefore, of 50 per cent on the transportation, would be equal to, at least, 25 per cent of the total cost of toll and transportation. That this reduction would materially increase the trade, is obvious on the least reflection. That this reduction will be effected by the completion of the enlargement, can no longer admit a reasonable doubt.

In 1835, an estimate was made, under the direction of the canal commissioners, by four engineers, each taking a certain section of the proposed improvement. The fact, that this estimate falls very much below the cost of the work, so far as it has progressed, has been severely animadverted upon, and calls for some explanation of the discrepancy. I made the estimate for the section commencing at Albany, and extending 57 miles west. The principal object was to obtain an approximate estimate of different dimensions of enlargement. From two to three months was all the time given to make this examination, prepare plans and calculations of quantities and cost. No great accuracy could be expected from the limited time given. The aggregate of this estimate was about $12,500,000, and the damages for land would have increased it to, probably, about $14,000,000.

So far as I was concerned, this estimate was based on the following considerations, which have not been observed, so far, in the construction of the work—to wit:—

1st. The work was to be prosecuted no faster than the surplus tolls would afford funds. Whereas, it has been prosecuted, much more rapidly, by additional funds, obtained by loans to a large amount, at a time when prices for labor and materials were high, and still further enhanced, by putting a large amount under contract, within a short time.

2d. Only one set of locks was contemplated by the estimate; whereas double locks, of a very expensive character, have been constructed in numerous cases. I do not contend that it was inexpedient to construct double locks; but the estimate should have the benefit of the additional set.

3d. The plan of work, embracing mechanical structures, was contemplated in the estimate, (so far as I was concerned,) to be plain and substantial; having regard to adequate strength and permanency, the convenience of the navigation, and proper symmetry in design; whereas, a very expensive mode, in executing a large portion of the work, not necessary for strength and permanency, has, to a great extent, prevailed. It is due to myself, to say that I earnestly remonstrated against this, in the outset; urging that it was unnecessary, and would eventually jeopard the success of the enterprise. In this, I was supported by commissioner, Bouck, who has, in all my intercourse, manifested a deep interest in the success of the improvement. There were items of work, not embraced in the original canal, that have been added to the plan of enlargement, which were not decided on at the time of the estimate. I have no doubt some, and, perhaps, most of these will be beneficial to the improvement.

The enlargement proceeded to the close of 1841, when it was arrested in consequence of financial embarrassments. Since that time, a very limited amount of work has been done. The total expenditure, thus far,

for work, damages for land, &c., has been about $13,000,000. The length of enlarged canal in use last season was near 36 miles, and 17 miles are to be put in use next spring, making 53 miles of canal in use and ready for use, and 228 structures. There are 40 structures completed, but not in use, not being connected, in consequence of other work unfinished. There are 177 structures in an advanced state—two-thirds done. It may be observed, that the more expensive parts, such as heavy sections of canal, large aqueducts, of the first and second classes, and locks, are generally either completed, or in a high state of advancement. This accounts for the fact that, although only a small portion of the improvement is in use, more than half the expense has been incurred, leaving about $11,000,000, (by the revised estimate of the canal commissioners, made in 1839,) to complete it on the expensive plan on which the work has been commenced. Taking into consideration, the present, or a fair price for labor and materials—an enconomical revision of the plans of work remaining to be done—(I mean such a revision as is compatible with the present dimensions of the enlarged canal, and will secure all necessary permanence and convenience to the navigation)—and a prosecution of the work at a rate of progress that will not enhance prices, there can be hardly a doubt, the remaining part of the enlargement may be completed for a much less sum than the above balance.

From the accumulation of deposit in the canal, and causes before alluded to, the average tonnage on down freight was reduced from 39 tons, in 1835, to 30 tons, in 1838. In consequence of this depression in the tonnage of boats, the canal commissioners gave greater attention to the repairs of the canal. They found the bottom in many places much filled with mud, sand and gravel, which, in fact, had been gradually accumulating, and, probably, never thoroughly cleaned out since the first introduction of the water. It is one of the objects of the enlargement, by raising the banks, and at some places the levels, and, instead of dams, constructing culverts and aqueducts, to turn land floods and their sediment under the canal, and thus, to a great extent, relieve the canal from this impediment.

By proceeding with a more thorough system of cleaning out the bottom, and raising the banks, the average tonnage was gradually increased, and, in 1841, it had reached 36 tons. At this time, but little of the new work had been brought into use. In 1842, a portion of the new work, mostly between Albany and Schenectady, was brought into use at places where the old work was always embarrassing to the navigation. As the enlargement was now suspended, the commissioners made more vigorous efforts to clean out the bottom, and raise the banks; which, with the new canal in use, so improved the navigation, that, in 1844, the average down tonnage of boats was about 60 tons, or double what it was in 1838. Other circumstances contributed to this result. The boats were constructed more full in their bearing, and a greater portion devoted exclusively to freight.

Notwithstanding this increase of tonnage, there were 257 more lockages in 1844 than in 1838. The down freight, in 1838, was 419,249 tons, and, in 1844, 871,537 tons. Consequently, all the efforts to improve the canal, and which have doubled its capacity, have only kept pace with the increasing trade. The tonnage of 1838 was a trifle greater than that of 1836; and, as the time from 1838 to 1844 may be too limited

to present a fair statement of increase, I propose to take 1834, when the trade had no special cause to affect its magnitude.

I have not the means of ascertaining the tonnage of 1834, except by comparing the tolls, which afford a sufficient approximation. The tolls of 1844 were 85 per cent greater than in 1834—a period of ten years. During this time there has been some reduction of tolls, the extent of which I cannot now state, but probably such as would show the tonnage to have increased nearly, if not quite, 100 per cent. It will be observed, this increase has taken place since the time when the canal was so fully occupied, that further capacity was required. In my letter to commissioner Bouck, before referred to, I gave it as my opinion, that the tonnage would be doubled in ten years, and urged this as a reason for adopting a liberal scale for the contemplated enlargement.

I have not noticed the return, or up freight, for the reason that, it being much less in tonnage than the down freight, the latter only is important in a calculation of capacity. The average price of freight on the canal may be taken at something above the charge of tolls; or the total charge of freight and tolls, at something over double the tolls. The total amount of tolls on the Erie canal, for the navigable year of 1844, was $2,190,147. The transportation may be assumed at $2,400,000, but say $2,200,000. If the enlarged work, when completed, will effect a reduction of half this sum, as it is believed has been conclusively shown, the annual saving on last year's trade, without considering the way trade, would be $1,100,000. This trade must increase for many years to come. For several years it has been contended, by the opponents of this enterprise, that the freight furnished by the forest would fall off as rapidly as that of agriculture, &c., would increase; and, therefore, no material increase of tonnage would occur. This subject was very ably discussed last winter, in the report of H. Seymour, Esq., chairman of the Canal Committee, in the assembly. The document is one of great interest, in which the canal policy of this state is treated in a manly and able manner. By a statement in a late number of the Merchants' Magazine, it appears the tonnage from the forest, arriving at tide water, from all the canals, in 1844, was 32 per cent over that of 1843, and that the total tonnage arriving at tide water, in 1844, was 30.6 per cent greater than that of 1843, showing the increase from the forest to have been greater than from all other sources, that is, the ratio of increase has been greater. It thus appears, Mr. Seymour's views, that the tonnage would continue to increase for a long time to come, have been well sustained by the facts thus far. There can be no doubt that, if adequate provision is made to accommodate it, the trade of this canal will go on increasing for many years; and, if we allow twenty years for it to double the last year's business, no time should be lost in devising a system of proceeding that will bring the improvement into complete operation in the course of about eight years. When it is completed from Albany to Syracuse, the trade will derive great benefit; and, by the time it is wholly in operation, say about eight years from this time, the annual saving in transportation will not be less than $1,500,000. The improvement will be a self-producing cause of increasing trade. That which now will not bear charges of transportation, will enter its regular business. The area of country that will concentrate in this channel, will be enlarged in proportion to the increased facilities and economy secured for its accommodation.

In the report of the canal commissioners, of January, 1844, where, speaking of the lockages in 1843, they remark—"The rapidly increasing transportation of property on this canal, from those states bordering on the western lakes, will, undoubtedly, greatly add to the number of lockages." In their recent report, (January, 1845,) they remark—"The great increase of business on the canals has materially added to the number of lockages." Again, page 10—"If the business on the canals continues to increase, it will soon be indispensable to its accommodation to have double locks brought into use at all places from Albany to Syracuse."

If time permitted, I would show, from the reports of canal commissioners, the failing and deteriorating condition of many of the old structures and works on the Erie canal, and the difficulty, from its small section at several places, in passing a sufficient supply of lockage water, during the seasons of greatest pressure in its business. Much more could be done, if the business was equally spread through the season of navigation, but such an arrangement is impracticable. The western lakes being closed in the winter, the products accumulated at their ports during the suspended navigation, will, at the opening of spring, rush to market, and supplies from the Atlantic market be immediately called for. Then again, after harvest, there will be an accumulated business in the fall trade.

In relation to the value of the enlarged canal, even for boats used on, and limited by the dimensions of the original work, the canal commissioners, in their report of January, 1844, remark—"those portions of the enlargement of the Erie canal, which are in use between Albany and Syracuse, and the construction of double locks on the enlarged plan at points most liable to detention and delay, have added greatly to the capacity of the canal, and to the certainty, safety, and expedition of transportation."

In their late report, (January, 1845,) the commissioners, in speaking of a section of about six miles of enlarged canal, embracing Scoharie creek, to be brought into use next spring, remark—"By this improvement the heavy annual expenses, to which the state has been heretofore subjected, in dredging the channels of the creeks, and in maintaining dams and towing path bridges, will be avoided; the injurious and vexatious delays, to which boats have been liable at the old locks, prevented, and inestimable benefits to the interest of all concerned in the navigation of the canal, secured." The same report, when speaking of eleven miles of enlarged canal, also to be brought into use next spring, known as the Jordan level, the commissioners remark—"The canal will receive an additional supply of water from the Nine Mile Creek feeder; the expense of two lock tenders, and the repair of two locks and two aqueducts, that are in a dilapidated condition, will be saved, and the hazard of interruption to the navigation will be greatly diminished."

The same report, in speaking of the locks near the upper Mohawk aqueduct, the commissioners remark: "During the busy portions of the season of navigation, these locks are in constant employment, and require the uninterrupted attendance of the lock tenders."

It therefore appears that, in regard to the convenience and economy of navigation—of repairs of canal, and also in regard to the increasing amount of the trade—the canal commissioners are deeply impressed with the usefulness of this improvement: and the friends of the enterprize do not appear to have over estimated its necessity and importance.

Several valuable and highly interesting public documents have at different times been published, which present many important particulars in relation to the subject under consideration. But the limited range of a single article, does not allow them to be further discussed.

The unproductiveness of the lateral canals has been much dwelt upon by the opponents of the enlargement of the Erie canal. The total length of the lateral canals is about equal to that of the Erie canal; while the tolls, on the latter, for the last season, were about 90 per cent of the aggregate tolls of all the state canals. There can be no doubt, however, that the tolls on the Erie canal, have been increased by the trade brought to it by the lateral canals; but to what extent I am not able to say. That money has been, to a greater or less extent, unwisely expended on the lateral canals, there can be no doubt. But is this a sufficient reason why we should neglect the proverbially great avenue of internal commerce? an avenue passing through the central and most fertile portion of our own state, connecting with internal lakes, rivers, and artificial canals, spreading its ramifications and usefulness to the great mass of our citizens; and uniting the most extensive inland lake navigation in the world, with one of the best river navigations! Certainly no careful, intelligent and candid examination of the subject will call for an abandonment of the enterprize, and leave its unfinished structures to point out to future times our incapacity to appreciate its importance.

To the city of New York, I regard the completion of the enlargement of the Erie canal, as a question of great importance. She has a deep interest in whatever tends to reduce the expense of interior transportation. She has already felt, in her accumulated millions, the effect of this canal as originally constructed. If I should undertake to estimate the benefits that have already flowed to the citizens of this state, in the advancement of their agriculture, manufactures and commerce, the amount would appear incredible. But the time has arrived when increased facilities are demanded for the accommodation of the increased, and increasing trade. Great efforts are making to divert as much of this trade to other ports as is practicable. And while the citizens in the interior have a common interest with New York, in reducing the cost of transportation, and possess the means for doing so, is it consistent with an intelligent spirit of enterprise, and regard for the public interest, to fold our hands and remain idle?

Without questioning the policy that led to a suspension of the enlargement in 1842, there can be no question the canal finances are *now* in a condition that admits of a safe and sufficient system, gradual in its commencement, and looking to the completion of the enterprise at some eight years from this time, without increasing the state debt. There can be no reasonable doubt, the tolls at the end of six or eight years will amount to $3,000,000 per annum. The new work put in complete operation, the expense of repairs would be reduced probably to between $300,000 and $400,000; and a surplus, applicable to the debt, of $2,600,000 per annum, may be calculated upon at that time with confidence.

It has been urged that taxes had to be laid to support the canals, and the people will not submit to it. Few persons understand this process of financiering, which has thrown undeserved discredit upon the state canals. By laws of the state, $200,000 of canal tolls have been, and are, annually appropriated to the general fund; and the salt revenues, which

have been created, and are sustained by the canals, amounting annually to about $100,000, have the same direction. Now the process is simply to take a portion of the canal revenues, appropriate them to the general fund, and then make up a part of the deficiency to the canal revenues from taxes; which should simply have been paid over in the first instance, to the general fund, and the canals left with their own revenues.

But it is said we must pay the canal debt, before further progress can be made in the completion of the work. By the recent report of the comptroller of the state, it appears the total canal debt is $20,713,905; the annual interest $1,126,397, and that he has on hand applicable to this debt, $2,691,225. This will reduce the debt to $18,022,680, on which the annual interest will be about $950,000. Add to this the annual cost of maintaining the canals, (which the last two years averaged $424,000,) for the last year was $464,334, and taking the whole sum of interest and repairs at the rate of last year, from the tolls of the last navigable year, $2,446,375, and there is a balance of $1,032,041; or, over $1,000,000 of surplus canal revenue. This surplus some propose to appropriate, after deducting what is carried to the general fund, to the extinguishment of the canal debt; and this improvement, (after more than half the expenditure necessary to complete it on the expensive plan that has been pursued,) is to be suspended from fifteen to twenty years, until this debt is paid! Is it reasonable that the present generation shall pay the whole of this debt, with the improvement so far advanced, but unfinished; and the trade from which this great surplus revenue is derived, be allowed to suffer from inconvenient and inadequate accommodation during this long term? Can it be that such a proposition will meet the approbation of the calm and practical good sense of an intelligent people?

If the measure was one of doubtful usefulness, and there was reasonable ground to apprehend it would bring a burden upon the people, we should pause, until the questions of usefulness and finance were well settled. It is not to be doubted that inexpedient expenditures have been made; but they are past, and can only be useful as beacons to guide us in the future. There is no reason, however, that, because some have failed, that *that* which is proverbially good should be neglected. The agriculturist would not be deemed wise, who, having lost his crop of oats, should therefore neglect to cultivate his corn.

It must be borne in mind that the Erie canal, not only bears the deficiencies of the unproductive laterals, but also an expenditure on its own unfinished, (consequently mainly unproductive,) enlargement, and on unfinished laterals, of together some $15,000,000. It has proved itself capable of bearing all these, and has acquired under them so much vigor that it is now proposed to add to it the unpaying railroad debt of near $4,000,000. This is not all; for it is already proposed, as it increases in strength, not to complete its unfinished work, but to add other expenses of government. Now, a work that is expected to bear such burdens, is certainly entitled, on the score of revenue, to have the best care that circumstances will permit. It would, however, be doing it injustice, to limit its usefulness, by the measure of its tolls. The benefits conferred on the general interest of the state, to agriculture, arts and commerce, and the general socializing influence produced by easy intercommunication, far exceed the value of its tolls.

In the present condition of the canal finances, there can be no difficulty

in proceeding with the enlargement of the Erie canal, on a scale that will annually bring more or less into use, and thereby improve the present navigation; and in a few years the whole may be completed, when its enhanced revenues will rapidly extinguish the debt; the holders of which will think themselves paid too soon.

I am aware that some persons are of the opinion that it is better to neglect the Erie canal, and depend on railroads to provide for the increasing trade. When it is considered that, on the completion of the enlarged Erie canal, a barrel of flour may be carried, exclusive of tolls, from Buffalo to New York for 15 cents, it will hardly be contended that railroads, judging from general experience in general trade, would be able to compete, in heavy freight, with the canal. To add present canal tolls would raise the cost to about 48 cents. For the promiscuous trade of the country, a canal boat, loaded at the canal port, and proceeding *without change of cargo to this city*, the great mart for the interior, has peculiar advantages. But it is not necessary to discuss this subject, for the avenue under consideration is of sufficient importance to require both railroad and canal of large capacity to meet its varied, great, and growing wants.

When it is considered that the annual tonnage of the Erie canal, that arrives at, and departs from tide water, is about equal to all the tonnage that enters and clears from the port of New York, I am persuaded my fellow citizens will agree with me, in regarding the enlargement of the canal, as a work in which she has a deep interest. It is indeed the great internal pillar in her commercial fabric. The interior of the state is no less interested than the city; it is a common interest, to economize the transit of property and serve the general interest of trade.

If the ample accommodation that is within our reach, is given to this trade, we may reasonably expect, at no great lapse of time after the work shall have been completed, its enhanced magnitude will be such, as to admit a reduction of tolls on such articles as are now able to bear only a moderate participation in the general trade, and ultimately a general reduction, and still leave abundant revenues to provide for its debt, and furnish means for other objects. Thus the trade would not only have the benefit of great economy in transportation, but also a reduction of tolls, which could not fail to produce incalculable advantages.

The subject is regarded as one of great general interest, and commends itself to the dispassionate consideration of an intelligent community. It should be viewed as above all partisan questions of policy, and treated as a matter in which the mass of our citizens has a common interest.

If we do not forget the inestimable benefits conferred on our own and other states, by the original work, we shall not fail to perceive the importance of now completing its enlargement, required to afford adequate provision for its greatly accumulated and increasing trade.

It will be perceived that no measures are here proposed to increase the canal debt, or to impair the ability of the canal revenues, to meet punctually the interest on the canal debt, and expenditures for repairs. It is merely to appropriate the canal revenues to canal purposes, and, after the interest on the debt, and expense of repairs are paid, the annual surplus to be appropriated to complete the enlargement of the Erie canal. And if it should be regarded as important to continue the present appropriation of $200,000 from canal tolls to the general fund, there will still be left,

on a calculation of tolls for the last navigable year, over $800,000 per annum to proceed with the work of enlargement.

A single remark on the question of canals as compared with railroads. It is very often observed that one, or the other, is the best mode to effect cheap transportation. I consider, however, that this question depends on circumstances. In the transportation of passengers and light freight, and such as requires winter transportation, a railroad possesses decided advantages; while for heavy freight, a large promiscuous trade, and more or less connected with natural navigation, a canal may be highly beneficial, even with a successful railroad by its side. With such a canal as the Erie, already in operation, possessing within itself the means of completing its own enlargement, so as to render it one of the most perfect artificial navigations in the world, it certainly would be unwise to abandon it, for any superiority that has yet been demonstrated in railroad transportation: far better for all interested in cheap carriage, to have both canal and railroad.

There are situations where a canal would be impracticable, and yet a railroad may be a highly successful improvement.

It is not for the public interest that these improvements should be compared by a partisan view; but that each should be considered with reference to its adaptation to the local circumstances and trade that is to be accommodated. J. B. J.

Art. IV.—THE UNITED STATES EXPLORING EXPEDITION.*

It is remarkable that the United States, although ranking as the second commercial power, has never until the date of the present expedition, contributed her quota as a nation to the advancement of geographical or physical science, except within the limits of her own sovereignty. It is true, that much has been accomplished by the individual enterprise of her citizens, and the record of their discoveries in the great Southern ocean, show most clearly that her deficiency has arisen rather from the peculiar character of her institutions, than from any want of zeal or daring on the part of her citizens, no better proof of this can be needed than is afforded by the narrative now before us.

When the expedition sailed, we were led to expect much from it; but during its progress, the accounts that appeared in the public prints induced a fear that the first voyage of discovery, undertaken under the auspices of our government, would prove a complete failure, and be productive of no beneficial results to the country or to science. A perusal of the narrative has fully removed these fears, and we hasten to lay before our readers a brief notice of such portions of this magnificent work as more particularly appertain to our department of literature.

It will probably be recollected by most of our readers that by an act of Congress, 18th May, 1836, an expedition was authorised to be fitted out for the purpose of exploring the Southern ocean, having special re-

* Narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, during the years 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, 1842. By Charles Wilkes, U. S. N. Commander of the Expedition, member of the American Philosophical Society, &c. In five volumes and an atlas. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1845.

ference to the important interests of our commerce embarked in the whale fisheries and other adventures in that region of the world. Owing to causes, which we feel no desire to investigate, everything connected with this expedition was in confusion, and a general belief existed that it would be abandoned, when in March, 1838, Capt. Wilkes was appointed to the command, and instructed to organize it anew; this he accomplished in a short time, so that in August, of the same year, he was ready to depart, and the squadron under his command, consisting of the sloop of war Vincennes and Peacock, ship Relief, brig Porpoise, and tenders Sea Gull and Flying Fish, left Hampton Roads on the 18th. The five splendid volumes now before us, are a record of how much was accomplished, and of the danger and difficulties undergone in fulfilment of the duties which devolved on the gallant officers and seamen attached to the expedition.

As the primary object of the expedition was the promotion of the great interests of commerce and navigation, it was natural to expect that these volumes would contain much that would be of importance to the mercantile community, but we scarcely anticipated the ample store of information to be found in them, respecting the trade and resources of the countries visited by Capt. Wilkes. The chapter on currents and whaling grounds, is, of itself, a full return for all the expenses incurred by the government in the voyage.

As before stated, the squadron left the Chesapeake on the 18th August, 1838, for Rio Janeiro, via Madeira. Of this island we have an interesting account, and the following particulars of the wine trade are deserving of notice.

"Wine is the staple commodity; the produce during 1837 was 14,150 pipes. The export the year previous to our visit amounted to 8,435 pipes, of which about 3,800 pipes, valued at $793,000, went to the United States. The imports amounted to $105,000 in staves, rice and oil. The 5,700 that remain, includes that shipped to Europe, the home consumption, and what is stored for refining. The inhabitants of Madeira are much alive and justly jealous of the reputation of their wines, which are generally the engrossing subject of conversation. An amusing excitement existed during our visit. A London paper had asserted that foreign wine had frequently been introduced into Madeira, and afterwards exported as the genuine article, to the United States, in particular, and what gave new force to the story it was stated as a fact, that seventy pipes had lately been entered at an expense of $1000, and manufactured. Everybody was up in arms. The commercial association of France had passed resolutions denouncing the publication in strong terms, as designed by interested persons to injure the reputation of the wine of Madeira. So strict are the laws to prevent frauds, that even genuine Madeira, after being once shipped, cannot be returned to the island."

After leaving Madeira they proceeded to the Cape de Verdes, searching on their way for the Maria rock, Bom Felix shoal and Bonetta rocks, but in vain; their reported positions were sailed over, and soundings taken, without any indications of a shoal being obtained. The same results ensued after leaving St. Jago, in the search for Patty's overforks, and Warburgh shoals, as well as the French shoal, Triton shoal, Bouvet's sandy shoal, and Krusenstein's volcano, all which *vigias*, or shoals, are laid down in the charts. They then bore away for Rio Janeiro, where they arrived on the 23d November. Capt. Wilkes observes on the passage of vessels from the United States to Rio:—

"Our observations would point out the necessity of dull sailing vessels not crossing the equator to the westward of 20° W. L., where the equatorial current begins to be felt; but vessels that sail well, may cross it as far as 26° W., particularly where the N. E. monsoons prevail in their full strength, and very much shorten their passage by such a course."

Among the variety of information on the condition and resources of Brazil, is a full account of the various races of negroes, brought there as slaves, demonstrating what has before been asserted by travellers, that they differ almost as much from each other, as they do from the whites. Our author states that, since the treaty with England, giving up the slave trade, large numbers of slaves are still smuggled in, by connivance with the authorities; the number annually imported, contrary to law, being estimated at 7 to 10,000; previous to this, about 50,000 were annually introduced, of which about one-third perished.

The national debt of Brazil, in 1838, was $60,000,000, whilst the revenue was $16,000,000, principally derived from duties, or imports and exports. The imports, at that time, were over $20,000,000.

"The amount of exports is variously stated. Coffee is the great staple, and more than 160,000,000 pounds were exported in 1838. It is derived from the central provinces, and the exports of it have more than doubled in the last ten years. The exports of the southern provinces are mostly confined to hides and tallow; those of the northern, to sugar, cotton and tobacco. The trade with the United States has greatly increased. Within the last ten years, from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and seventy American vessels take and bring cargoes to and from the United States, and some foreign vessels are engaged in the same trade. The consumption of American flour, in Rio, and the neighboring country, has been, during the same year, about 120,000 barrels."

The expedition next proceeded to the Rio Nigro, and thence to Orange Harbor, in Terra del Fuego, where preparations were made for a cruise in the Antarctic ocean, during which they experienced very heavy weather, and obtained but few good results; accurate observations were, however, made of the positions and bearings of several islands, and some new ones discovered; and, on the 20th of April, 1839, they again left Orange Harbor for the Pacific, and arrived at Valparaiso on the 15th of May. We are now presented with a very full and interesting account of Chili, from which we learn that the commerce of Chili is rapidly increasing; the exports of copper from Truasco, Coquimbo, and Valparaiso, amount to 60,000 quintals per annum, and of the ore, principally to England, from 150 to 200,000 quintals; the silver exported amounts to 100,000 marks, of 8 ounces.

"There are 30,000 hides exported, principally from Valparaiso. From 5 to 600 quintals of wool are shipped annually from Conception. Very little silver is coined in the country, dollars being an article of merchandise, worth from 7 to 9 per cent, according to the supplies from Bolivia or Peru. From 800,000 to 1,000,000 silver dollars come annually from Cobija to Valparaiso, and are shipped thence to England."

The annual imports into Chili and Peru have averaged $10,600,000, of which $1,500,000 were from the United States; the returns from Chili are about $6,200,000, of which copper is the largest item, amounting to $2,000,000. The number of vessels employed in the trade is about two hundred and seventy, of which eighty are from the United States. In consequence of the favorable situation of Valparaiso, a large proportion of the supplies for Peru are landed there, and sent to their ultimate desti-

nation in coasting vessels. The foreign trade is principally carried on by the English, Americans and French, though, of late years, a good many German and Spanish vessels have been engaged in this commerce.

"The annual imports into Peru are combined so much with those of Chili, that it was deemed proper to include them under one head; those of Peru amount to about two-fifths of the whole of these imports, part go to Guayaquill; the Intermedios, or South Peru and Bolivia, take about $1,000,000 from Chili and Peru. The returns from Peru are—dollars and bullion, $4,500,000; bark, hides, &c., $500,000.

"These countries offer a large market for our domestic cottons, and, if the prices can be maintained, the United States will supply the most of the coarser kinds used. I have it from the best authority, that the consumption of these goods is now double what it was five years ago, and it is still increasing."

It is evident, from the facts stated by Captain Wilkes, and those derived from other sources, that the Chili and Peru trade is of vast importance to the United States, as affording one of the best marts for her manufactures; but, in consequence of the disturbed state of those countries, and the miserable policy pursued by their rulers, commerce has been restricted, and their vast resources but partially developed; hence, the markets have been glutted with foreign goods, not so much from over-importation, as from a want of safe means of inland transportation; for it has constantly happened that, while in the seaports, goods have been sold at a ruinous sacrifice, enormous profits would have been obtained on them in the interior. Latterly, the trade has been more steady, and a more healthy state of things has prevailed, but much still remains to be done, before commerce can assume a regular form.

After remaining on the coast of South America until the middle of July, the expedition sailed for the islands in the Pacific; the first group of which they visited, was the Paumster group. These islands, in a commercial point of view, possess but little interest, the only article of importation furnished by them being the pearl oyster shell; these, as principally coming to our markets, viz., Tahiti, will be noticed hereafter.

The island of Tahiti—as it is now termed, the Otaheite of Cook—possesses unusual interest to every one who has read the voyages of that great navigator, and has traced, in the records of more modern voyages, the gradual change that has taken place in the manners and religion of its inhabitants. We would willingly make copious extracts from the narrative now before us, respecting this people, but feel constrained to restrict ourselves to its commercial history, which is, perhaps, the least interesting point connected with it, that would be selected, as its resources are very limited, most of its trade consisting in the supplies furnished to whale ships.

"An estimate has been made, that each of those vessels introduces goods to the amount of $500, making a total of $50,000; but I much question whether it can reach this extent; and if this amount be sold, it must include the profits; half the sum, I should think, was a large estimate. The few other vessels that visit the islands bring little cargo. If two arrive at the same time, they destroy each other's ventures, by glutting the markets."

As we mentioned above, the pearl shells procured among the Paumster group, are here disposed of. This trade was very productive for some years before the arrival of the expedition there, the quantity obtained in six years amounting to about 900 tons, valued at about $50,000. The other articles of produce are sugar, cocoa nut oil, and arrow root; of the

first of which Tahiti and its dependent islands furnished 149 tons, valued at about $11,000; of the oil, 185 tons, valued at about $13,000: of arrow root, about 50 tons are produced, valued at about $4,000. There are a few small vessels belonging to these islands, which trade to New South Wales, where they pay the same duties as British bottoms.

As a place of rendezvous for our whalers, being in the vicinity of their cruising grounds, and the ample supplies they are enabled to procure here, this island is invaluable. The vessels usually resort to the bay of Paprieti, as it affords greater facilities for repairs and supplies than any other.

The next group visited was the Samown or Navigators islands, from whence Capt. Wilkes directed his course to Australia, where he arrived in November, and remained about a month, employed in preparing for an Antarctic cruise, and in observations on this strange country. These form the material for several highly interesting chapters, containing a mass of information on the colony, and its resources, of the most valuable kind.

The trade of Australia is already great, and is rapidly on the increase. Our author states:—

"The number of vessels that entered the port of Samown, in 1826, was 62, and their tonnage 17,178 tons; in 1840 they had increased to 704, and the tonnage, 178,958. The value of imports, in 1826, was 60,000 pounds; in 1840 it had increased to 3,014,189 pounds. That of exports, in 1826, was 106,600; in 1840 they amounted to 1,399,692 pounds. It will also be seen, that in the return of vessels built and registered in 1822, there were but 3, of only 163 tons; in 1840, 111 vessels, the amount of whose tonnage was 13,349 tons. But the most remarkable increase is in the exportation of wool, which, in 1822, was only 172,880 pounds, whilst in 1840 it amounted to 8,610,775 pounds."

Nor does the wonderful increase of trade and production cease here, as is shown by the elaborate tables given in the appendix, which are two long for insertion in this place, but will amply repay a perusal; we shall merely notice in connexion with this subject, that it appears that the commerce with the United States is very limited, and mainly confined to a single house at Salem, which employs a few vessels in bringing flour, tobacco, &c., for which wool and hides are received as return cargoes.

We now come to the most interesting portion of the voyage, in a geographical point of view,—the discovery of a new continent, an honor, which must be conceded to Capt. Wilkes, whatever claims may be set up by other nations. A calm and dispassionate perusal of the chapters containing an account of the Antarctic cruise, will convince even the most prejudiced, that American seamen were the first to ascertain the existence of a large body of land to the south of Australia. It is well known to most of our readers that there were three expeditions of discovery in the Southern ocean, at much the same time, the American, another, English, under the command of Capt. Ross, and a third, French, commanded by Capt. D'Urville; those of France and America were of the same date, and that of England rather later.

The existence of a great body of land within the Antarctic circle does not admit of dispute; on this point all agree; the main difference of opinion is as to its extent, and the date of the discovery. Our limits forbid us to go into the subject at length, and restrict us to a mere notice of the events that occurred. Before entering on this, we cannot refrain from

giving the following paragraph, as showing under what disadvantages, and how unfitted were the vessels for undertaking this perilous enterprise.

"During our stay at Port Jackson, our vessels were much visited by all classes, and a great many inquiries made respecting our accommodations, &c. All seemed disappointed at not being able to see the same complete outfits in our vessels as they had seen described in the published accounts of those of the English expedition, commanded by Captain James Ross. They inquired whether we had compartments in our ships, to prevent us from sinking?—how we intended to keep ourselves warm?—what kind of anti-scorbutic we were to use?—and where were our great ice-saws? To all these questions, I was obliged to answer, to their great apparent surprise, that we had none, and to agree with them that we were unwise to attempt such service in ordinary cruising vessels; but we had been ordered to go, and that was enough—and go we should. This want of preparation certainly did not add to the character, for wisdom, of our government with this community; but they saw us all cheerful, young, and healthy, and gave us the character that I found our countrymen generally bear, of recklessness of life and limb."

Nor was this all. The vessels could not stow a year's provisions, even on short allowance, and fuel for a much shorter period; so that, had they been hemmed in by the ice, every man must have perished. To add to the evils, the Peacock was found to be almost unseaworthy; yet, in this unprepared condition, the squadron faced the dangers of a high southern latitude; and, in spite of every difficulty and privation, nobly performed the duties assigned to it, discovered a new continent, and returned in safety, owing to the skill and perseverance of its commanders, and the zeal and courage of their officers and men. Their reward has been, not the applause and gratitude of their country, but accusations and court-martials for the officers, and neglect of the brave men under their orders; but we trust, to use the emphatic words of the author, "that the applause of a grateful country has been only delayed, not wholly lost."

On the 26th of December, the expedition left Port Jackson, for the icy ocean of the south; and, on the 11th January, 1841, were stopped in latitude 64 deg. 11 min. S., longitude 164 deg. 30 min. E., by a barrier of ice. At this time, a faint appearance of land was perceptible; and the water had become of an olive-green color, as observed from the Peacock. On the 13th, Lt. Com. Ringgold, of the Porpoise, was also confident that land was seen. On the 16th, appearances of land were discovered from all three vessels, and the subsequent observations, made along an extent of 1,500 miles, leaves no doubt that an extensive continent exists at the South pole. A summary of these observations is best given in the words of the author:—

"Along the antarctic continent, for the whole distance explored, which is upwards of 1,500 miles, no open strait is found. The coast, where the ice permitted approach, was found enveloped with a perpendicular barrier, in some cases unbroken for fifty miles. If there was only a chain of islands, the outline of the ice would undoubtedly be of another form; and it is scarcely to be conceived that so long a chain should extend so nearly in the same parallel of latitude. The land has none of the abruptness of termination that the islands of high southern latitudes exhibit; and I am satisfied that it exists in one uninterrupted line of coast from Ringgold's Knoll, in the east, to Enderby's Land, in the west—that the coast (at longitude 95 deg. E.) trends to the north, and this will account for the icy barrier existing, with little alteration, where it was seen by Cook, in 1773. The great number of ice islands conclusively points out that there is some extensive nucleus, which retains them in their position; for I can see no reason why

the ice should not be disengaged from islands, if they were such, as happens in all other seas, in like latitudes. The formation of the coast is different from what would probably be found near islands, soundings being obtained in comparatively shoal water; and the color of the water also indicates that it is not like other southern lands, abrupt and precipitous. This cause is sufficient to retain the huge masses of ice, by their being attached by their lower surfaces, instead of their sides only."

A reference to the chart will show the extent of this continent explored, the perfect continuity of its coast, and the little probability of its being merely a chain of its lands; it will also afford evidence that the account which appeared in the province prints, that Captain Ross had sailed over the site of the supposed continent, was founded in error; an inspection of the map demonstrates that he coasted the portion of it which trends to the northward, as no land to the eastward of 160 deg. is claimed to have been discovered by Captain Wilkes. We would willingly pursue this subject, but we feel assured that most of our readers will investigate it for themselves, and that they will rise from the perusal of the narrative with a firm impression of its truthfulness, and will award the honor where it is justly due.

After this perilous cruise, in which the Peacock escaped by almost a miracle, the squadron returned to Sydney, whence they again sailed, on the 19th of March, for New Zealand, and arrived in the Bay of Islands on the 30th. We have already extended this notice so much further than we originally intended, that we are obliged to conclude with a few additional extracts from the other volumes, without attempting to follow the expedition in its visits to other places.

Among the information collected whilst visiting the Fejee group, there is a particular account of the Bicha de Mar trade, derived principally from Captain Eagleston, an experienced trader in those seas.

This article which finds a ready sale in the China market, is a dried worm or sheg, which is found in great numbers on the coral reefs of many of the islands in the great Southern ocean. There are many kinds of it, some of which are more highly esteemed than others; they are distinguished by shape and color; the most valuable kinds are found in water from one to two fathoms deep. After these worms are collected, they are thrown into bins to drain and purge, after which the larger kinds are slit along the belly, they are then placed in proper vessels without water, and boiled in their own liquor for about half an hour, drained, and then dried by a slow fire in a house prepared for the purpose; this last operation requires four or five days. In the process of drying, it loses two-thirds both in weight and bulk; and, when cured, resembles a smoked sausage. It is sold in the China or Manilla market by the picul, which brings from 15 to 25 dollars.

"To show the profits which arise from the trade in Bicha de Mar, I give the cost and returns of five cargoes, obtained by Captain Eagleston in the Fejee group:—

	Piculs.	Cost.	Sales
1st voyage,.....	617	$1,101	$8,021
2 "	600	1,200	17,500
3 "	1,080	3,396	15,120
4 "	840	1,200	12,600
5 "	1,200	3,500	27,000

"A further profit also arises from the investment of the proceeds in Canton. Captain Eagleston also obtained 4,488 lbs. of tortoise shell, at a cost of $5,700, which sold in the United States for $29,050 net.

Although the outfit for this trade is small, the risk is so great that no insurance can be effected on the vessels; as, without an exercise of the greatest precaution, it is impossible to prevent the loss of the vessel and crew, as the natives are ever on the watch to destroy them, for the sake of plunder.

After leaving the Southern ocean, the expedition proceeded to Oregon, and a long time was spent in exploring the country and in surveying the harbors and rivers; the information given in the several chapters devoted to this territory are of much moment at this time, when its occupation has become an object of general attention in the United States. From the account of Captain Wilkes, it appears that the climate is genial and the soil good, but it seems to be better calculated for a grazing than for an agricultural country; one of the great drawbacks to its prosperity is the danger attending the navigation of the Columbia river; this, although greatly lessened by the excellent charts now presented, can never be entirely obviated, as it arises from cross tides which are constantly changing; added to which, they are so rapid that it is impossible to steer a vessel by the compass, or maintain her position, and no sailing directions can possibly embrace the various effects produced by them on a vessel. In connection with this is the singular fact peculiar to this navigation alone, that the safest time to enter is when wind and tide are adverse. In consequence of these difficulties and the want of pilots, the Peacock was unfortunately lost; however much this may be deplored, it is evident that no blame can be attached to Captain Hudson or his officers; they did all that science and skill could do in the circumstances under which they were placed, and when these are duly known and appreciated, it must be acknowledged, even by the most prejudicial, that praise, and not censure, is their due reward.

After the surveys of Oregon were accomplished, the squadron rendezvoused at San Francisco, in California, and sailed thence in October, 1841, for Manilla, during which passage the many shoals and islands laid down in the charts were found not to exist. In January, 1842, the expedition arrived at Manilla, of which, and the Philippine islands we have a full account; from here they pursued their way through the Indian archipellago to the United States, where they arrived in June, 1842.

We have still to notice what we consider as the most valuable portion of the work, and which of itself is an ample return for all the expense incurred by the nation in the prosecution of the undertaking; we allude to the chapter on currents and whaling grounds; as it establishes the important fact that the direction of the great currents of the ocean, by carrying with them the proper food of the whale, determines not only the resorts of those animals, but also the seasons at which they are to be found in each locality.

From the nature of this paper, it would be almost impossible to give a synopsis of it in any reasonable limits; we must therefore confine ourselves to stating that after giving an account of the various currents of the ocean, and showing the influence of these in sweeping with them the meduræ, which forms the principal food of the whale, our author goes on to prove that it is to this cause mainly, that the whale, and more especially the sperm whale, is a migratory animal. The principal whaling grounds are shown on the map annexed to this chapter, and it will be seen that they occupy, in most instances, the neutral, points or spaces, in

the ocean, where no current exists; in other words, the spots in which their food has been accumulated by the action of the environing currents. Captain Wilkes next gives a particular account of the various whaling grounds, both for the sperm and the right whale, and points out the time of the year in which they most abound in each place, and finishes with some excellent observations and suggestions respecting this most important trade. We cannot to highly recommend the subject embraced in this chapter to the attention of the mercantile public, and more especially to that portion of it engaged in the whale trade.

We cannot conclude without giving our meed of praise to the manner in which these volumes have been got up, both as regards their typography and the numerous illustrations with which they are adorned; these are truly excellent, and may be cited as the best proof of the advanced state of the arts in the United States. The narrative itself is told in a clear and engaging manner, and is exceedingly rich in almost every topic that can gratify public curiosity.

Art. V.—CANAL COMMERCE OF OHIO.

The Eighth Annual Report of the Board of Public Works of Ohio, made to the forty-third General Assembly of that state, at the close of the last year, has been printed.* It forms a pamphlet of nearly one hundred pages, embracing a very minute account of the condition of the canals, and other public improvements, owned exclusively by the state. We shall endeavor to present as comprehensive a view of the commerce of the state as the data, chiefly furnished in the report, will permit. The complete public works of the state are as follows:—

Ohio canal, and appendages,.....	334
Miami and Warren county canals,.....	85
Extension of Miami canal, and appendages,.....	105
Wabash and Erie canal, and appendages,.....	91
Walhonding canal,.....	25
Hocking canal,.....	56
Muskingum Improvement,.....	91
Total miles in length,.....	787

To which may be added the Northern Division of Miami Extension, to be completed at the opening of the spring navigation of 1845, 35 miles; making an aggregate of 822 miles of canals and slack-water. The other public works consist of the Western Reserve and Maumee road, 31 miles in length; one-third of the stock in the Pennsylvania and Ohio canal, and navigable branches, 87 miles; the White-Water canal, 25 miles; and the Milan canal and slack-water, 11 miles—an aggregate of 123 miles. The state also owns one-half the stock in twenty-six turnpike companies, embracing near 1,000 miles of M'Adamized road, traversing different sections of the state; and has recently subscribed to the capital

* We are indebted to Leander Ransom, Esq., the President of the Board, for an early copy of the report.—[Ed. Mer. Mag.]

stock of several railroads, three of which are in progress, but not completed.

The board of public works, (consisting of Leander Ransom, William Spencer, and a Mr. Dickinson,) represent the business on the Ohio canal, near the 1st of July, 1844, as having largely increased over a corresponding period of 1843. The property of this canal, and indeed of all similar improvements, depends, in a great measure, on the quantity of the agricultural staples produced in their vicinity. Wheat, in fact, is the great and principal staple of Ohio; and; as this is materially increased or diminished in quantity, the revenues on the public works of the state are correspondingly affected, as well as the prominent interests of the people.

For a series of years, extending from 1835 to 1842, nearly the same quantity of wheat and flour was shipped from the district of country south of, and including Roscoe, that was shipped from the district north of that point; but, since 1842, the difference in favor of the northern district has greatly increased—amounting, in 1844, out of an aggregate shipment of 3,624,223 bushels, to over 1,100,000 bushels. There has been, as will be seen by the tables that follow, a very considerable increase in the quantity of pork shipped by the Ohio canal, the past year; exceeding, by over 30,000 barrels, the shipment of any previous year. The shipments of wool, it appears, have more than doubled any previous year; amounting, in the aggregate, to nearly 1,000,000 pounds.

The quantity of merchandise imported into Ohio, through this channel, in 1844, is considerably less than the previous year. Of the merchandise shipped at Cleveland, in 1844, amounting to 11,552,460 pounds, only 1,476,107 pounds were transported the whole distance for Portsmouth, and the Ohio river trade. This item of business has gradually decreased, since 1836; and it is stated by the board that, should the greater part be lost to the Ohio canal by the opening of the Miami, it will be of much less consequence than many have imagined.

We give, from the report, several tabular statements of the receipts or imports of merchandise, and New York salt; and the shipments or exports of the leading articles of produce from the state, by this canal. The following table exhibits the number of pounds of merchandise shipped by way of the Ohio canal, from Cleveland and Portsmouth; the aggregate shipments, and the proportion shipped from Cleveland, that arrived at Portsmouth:—

	Pounds of Merchandise shipped via Ohio Canal.			Prop. of mer. shipped from Cl've'ld, that ar. at P'tsm'h.
Years.	From Cleveland.	From Portsmouth.	Aggregate.	
1833,.....	9,896,440	.....	.....	.....
1834,.....	10,127,613	.....	.....	.....
1835,.....	14,839,950	5,868,605	20,708,555	.....
1836,.....	13,384,959	7,220,003	20,604,962	5,193,784
1837,.....	10,757,386	3,487,271	14,244,657	no returns.
1838,.....	18,875,286	3,763,398	22,638,684	4,855,609
1839,.....	19,125,282	7,085,735	26,211,017	4,460,355
1840,.....	10,783,514	6,747,565	17,531,079	2,199,825
1841,.....	15,164,747	5,773,929	20,938,676	4,166,871
1842,.....	10,091,803	5,111,112	15,202,915	1,910,457
1843,.....	13,250,758	5,886,587	19,137,345	2,880,112
1844,.....	11,552,460	5,176,823	16,729,283	1,476,107

Years.	Bbls. Pork shipped via Ohio Canal. Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsm'th.	Aggregate.	Lbs. Lard shipped via Ohio Canal. Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsm'th.	Aggregate.
1833,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1834,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1835,.....	.....	.....	.....	522,498	.....	.....
1836,.....	13,572	29,501	43,073	638,269	.....	.....
1837,.....	56,077	14,812	70,889	1,527,610	22,800	1,550,410
1838,.....	46,767	23,847	70,614	1,157,109	987,122	2,144,231
1839,.....	37,230	15,500	52,730	857,455	577,156	1,434,611
1840,.....	26,441	8,969	35,410	525,802	466,447	992,249
1841,.....	39,200	31,209	70,409	961,161	1,361,718	2,322,879
1842,.....	58,608	26,420	85,028	1,311,185	1,832,262	3,143,447
1843,.....	22,810	45,036	67,846	1,649,835	3,274,066	4,923,901
1844,.....	45,174	70,295	115,469	1,540,135	4,080,351	5,620,486

Years.	*Pounds of Wool.* Rec'd at Cleveland.	Rec'd at Portsmouth.	Aggregate.	*Bbls. of New York Salt.* From Cleveland.	Prop. arrived at Portsm'th.	Bush. of min. coal rec'd at Clevel'd.
1833,.....	.....	.....	.....	28,447	.....	49,131
1834,.....	.....	.....	.....	36,803	.....	95,634
1835,.....	.....	.....	.....	46,139	8,438	50,473
1836,.....	.....	.....	.....	22,334	.....	84,124
1837,.....	.....	.....	.....	62,977	154	183,484
1838,.....	.....	.....	.....	63,465	998	73,292
1839,.....	32,176	49,926	82,102	109,916	17,029	134,881
1840,.....	48,222	15,127	63,349	77,254	12,390	172,206
1841,.....	107,805	25,548	133,353	59,773	1,440	478,370
1842,.....	199,803	24,857	224,660	49,556	339	466,844
1843,.....	391,138	38,541	429,679	44,310	183	387,834
1844,.....	848,878	129,916	978,794	73,325	454	540,305

The statements below, point out the several particulars:—

	1.	2.	3.	4.
1835,.....	387,232	132,319	1,048,827	1,154
1836,.....	463,821	167,431	1,300,976	3,399
1837,.....	549,141	203,691	1,567,596	735
1838,.....	1,229,012	287,465	2,666,337	2,368
1839,.....	1,515,820	264,887	2,840,255	1,100
1840,.....	2,155,407	505,461	4,682,712	.....
1841,.....	1,564,421	441,425	3,771,546	128,191
1842,.....	1,311,665	492,711	3,775,220	.....
1843,.....	813,536	577,369	3,700,381	605
1844,.....	976,551	494,909	3,447,046	487

Note.—Column 1 contains the number of bushels of wheat received at Cleveland, via Ohio canal; 2, number of barrels of flour received at Cleveland, via Ohio canal; 3, aggregate bushels of wheat, (reckoning a barrel of flour at five bushels,) received at Cleveland; 4, number of bushels of wheat received at Portsmouth, via Ohio canal.

	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1835,.....	25,745	129,879	1,178,706	577,258	601,448
1836,.....	32,629	166,544	1,467,520	629,670	837,850
1837,.....	13,546	68,465	1,636,061	823.025	813,036
1838,.....	13,898	71,858	2,738,195	1,392,827	1,345,368
1839,.....	6,932	35,760	3,876,015	1,538,418	1,337,597
1840,.....	34,134	170,670	4,853,382	2,147,981	2,705,401
1841,.....	62,441	440,396	4,211,942	1,918,890	2,293,052
1842,.....	18,688	93,440	3,868,660	1,808,718	2,059,942
1843,.....	28,736	144,285	3,844,666	1,440,217	2,404,449
1844,.....	35,338	177,177	3,624,223	1,220,029	2,404,194

Note.—Column 5 shows the number of barrels of flour received at Portsmouth; 6, aggregate bushels of wheat, (reckoning a barrel of flour five bushels,) received at Portsmouth; 7, grand aggregate of wheat shipped on the Ohio canal; 8, proportion of the foregoing grand aggregate shipped from a district south of, and including Roscoe, which also includes Zanesville wheat; 9, proportion shipped from the district north of Roscoe.

There has been received, by the collector on this canal, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state,..... $343,710 99
Amount thus reported last year,..... 324,259 81

Which shows an increase, for the year, of..... $19,451 18

WALHONDING CANAL.—The amount received by the collector, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, on this work, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state, is. $1,976 78
The amount reported last year, was..... 610 32

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... $1,366 46

The following are a portion of the leading articles shipped on this canal, since its completion:—

	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat,.....bush.	21,133	31,371	100,714
Flour,.....bbls.	3,554	6,595	10,060
Wool,.....lbs.	80	5,511	41,926

There has been paid on this canal, for the year ending November 15, 1844, by Leander Ransom, acting commissioner—

For superintendence and repairs,..... $1,200 00
For incidental expenses,..... 38 10

Total payments for the year,..... $1,238 10

HOCKING CANAL.—The amount received by the collectors on this work, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor of state, is..... $5,286 44
Amount reported to him last year,..... 4,349 33

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... $937 11

The deficiency in the crop of wheat in this valley, for the last three years, has had a very decided effect on the revenues of this work.

Annexed, is a comparative statement of some of the leading articles transported on this canal, since it was opened for navigation:—

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Wheat,.....bush.	17,908	70,680	41,988	33,896	44,046
Flour,.....bbls.	274	6,163	13,662	20,464	11,960
Coal,.....bush.	....	31,981	80,329	127,853	118,004
Salt, (domestic,).....bbls.	....	4,186	6,777	10,279	9,416

MUSKINGUM IMPROVEMENT.—The amount received on this work by the collectors, for tolls, fines, and water-rents, for the year ending November 15, 1844, as reported to the auditor, is..... $29,384 64
The amount thus reported last year, was..... 22,340 98

Showing an increase, for the year, of..... $7,043 66

The following statement shows a portion of the leading articles transported on this improvement, since its completion:—

Shipped.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	23,494	79,727	95,762	109,986	97,558
Salt,.....	1,705	13,672	8,774	11,773	19,042
Merchandise,*.....lbs.	.....	117,148	629,773	2,274,873	3,415,647

* Received at Harmar, to pass up the Improvement.

MIAMI CANAL.—There has been a steady and gradual improvement in the business of this canal for the last three years, as will be shown by the annexed tabular statements of the receipts and shipments of a few of the most prominent staple articles of the country, and the merchandise shipped from, and received at, two of the most important points :—

SHIPPED FROM CINCINNATI, VIA THE CANAL.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Merchandise,.....lbs.	8,664,640	5,566,282	4,359,433	2,842,861	3,651,293	4,112,291
Iron and nails,.....	3,191,085	2,007,192	1,989,105	1,267,322	1,510,891	1,326,263
Castings,.....	1,449,788	496,143	no returns.	no returns.	no returns.	259,818
Pig iron,.....	659,371	308,142	400,201	386,568	419,427	817,643
Salt,.....bbls.	23,061	21,928	23,120	16,518	21,982	17,489

RECEIVED AT CINCINNATI, VIA THE CANAL.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	138,120	165,762	118,577	74,204	127,093	133,544
Whiskey,.....	43,228	74,026	69,893	48,853	58,798	68,933
Pork, (including bulk pork and bacon,)....	67,736	31,795	33,255	36,208	25,252	47,154
Lard,.....lbs.	2,562,192	1,238,280	1,749,151	1,793,731	1,543,256	4,298,743
Wheat,.....bush.	no returns.	97,200	no returns.	5,283	5,983	13,272

SHIPPED FROM DAYTON.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Flour,.....bbls.	54,999	79,862	68,379	37,032	73,188	87,207
Whiskey,.....	20,694	37,129	41,103	31,982	37,370	38,512
Pork, (including bulk pork and bacon,)....	8,879	5,379	10,018	11,295	11,648	14,539
Lard,.....lbs.	348,218	246,863	431,975	793,648	1,331,805	1,497,196
Wheat,.....bush.	4,698	840	1,191	155	298	2,685

RECEIVED AT DAYTON.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Merchandise,.....lbs.	3,577,982	2,714,503	2,951,557	1,915,253	2,960,703	3,240,979
Pig iron,.....	147,059	no returns.	271,961	262,002	387,663	613,527
Castings,.....	766,860	no returns.	484,462	51,556	175,556	227,126
Iron and nails,.....	1,422,803	1,136,262	1,463,676	872,324	1,586,227	1,281,648
Salt,.....bbls.	no returns.	6,874	12,401	7,599	13,029	9,900

There has been received, for tolls, fines, and water rents, during the year ending November 15, 1844,..... $77,844 25

There was received, during the year ending November 15, 1843,..... 68,640 09

Showing an increase, for the present year, of..... $9,204 16

ART. VI.—THE PRECIOUS METALS IN RUSSIA.

THE SILVER MINING SYSTEM.

As the silver mines of Russia belong principally or almost wholly to the Emperor, a much more strict and rigorous system is pursued than where, as in the gold mines, the operations are left to private speculation.

Mr. Cottrell, in the course of his journey through Siberia, visited the emperor's silver-mines at Zouenogorsk. These mines consist of a series of subterranean caverns and long galleries. After a descent by a staircase upwards of three hundred feet deep, there occurs a gallery nine

hundred feet long, at the end of which is a water-wheel forty-two feet in diameter. This wheel, which is called the *preobraschenska*, is set to work by water brought along two canals excavated under ground; and the wheel itself is employed in lifting the silver-ore to the mouth of the mine. There are three other water-wheels in different parts of the mine, to facilitate the operations. Farther on, galleries are cut in every direction, leading to other shafts which have ceased to be worked.

These mines have been worked above a century, and are becoming almost exhausted, yielding only one part of silver from two hundred thousand parts of ore or rock. The workmen employed are serfs of the crown, who receive two rubles a month each, besides twelve puds of flour monthly, and house-rent free. The labor is not very excessive; the works are going on night and day, but three sets of workmen are employed, who relieve each other every eight hours, so that no one works above eight hours in the twenty-four. These mines have produced altogether during the period of rather more than a century that they have been crown property, about fifty thousand puds of silver, and seventeen hundred puds of gold, besides lead and other minerals of more or less value. At present the net produce is supposd to be worth about thirty thousand pounds sterling annually. The establishment is on a large scale, employing in the laboratory part alone about three hundred men; and the arrangements are planned with the most perfect regularity.

The mode of procuring silver from the crude substance which it contains is very different from that adopted in respect to gold, arising from the different state in which the two metals present themselves. The gold, as we stated in the former article, is found mixed up with grains of sand; and the mode of separating it is as follows:—On an inclined plane is placed a large wooden machine formed into different compartments, which are divided off by large iron combs. The first of these combs is coarse and open, as the material to pass through it is composed of pieces of quartz, stone, and sand, mixed together. Gold is generally found in quartz, as well as interspersed among the fragments; and to obtain the former, the quartz is bruised into moderate-sized pieces; but the time employed in so doing is often times greater than the value of the gold will repay, and therefore a good deal of the gold is voluntarily sacrificed. When the auriferous fragments are placed in one of the compartments, water is poured on the mass, and stirred about; the larger pieces of stone and much of the sand separate, while the heavier particles of gold fall to the bottom. Again and again is this washing performed, until all the sand is washed away, and the particles of gold are left nearly in a pure state. Of this mode of proceeding Mr. Cottrell says that it is very simple, though improvements in machinery would diminish the expense considerably; and what is of more consequence, from the want of workmen, enable them to increase their operations considerably, which must now be limited in proportion to the number of laborers they can obtain. We believe it would be a most profitable speculation for any clever inventor of machinery to go there to devise some new plan for clearing the materials from which the gold is extracted; and we are convinced he would make his fortune, as he might obtain a patent as easily as in this country. Not only are grains of gold found in this way mingled up with grains of sand and small pieces of stone, but occasionally pieces of six and seven pounds' weight are found; and on one occasion a mass weighing twenty four pounds was found almost wholly pure gold.

But with respect to silver, the mode of extraction is very different. It is found in a very hard rock of granite and porphyry. This rock is in the first place blasted by means of gunpowder: and the masses thus separated are broken up into small pieces with hammers. These smaller pieces are finally pounded by large hammers worked by machinery. The stone so pounded is put into furnaces for the separation of the metallic particles from the dross; this is done in immense smelting-houses, where a current of air is brought in from openings above to act the part of bellows, and create a draught in the furnace below; from whence the substance is poured out, cleared of its baser parts, but apparently not much more purified than when it was put in. The next process takes place in another furnace, where all the metallic particles, except the silver, are removed. Lastly, the nearly purified silver is put into a doubly-heated refining furnace, called a *treib-ofen*, together with pieces of lead, which, when melted, draw off with them any remaining drossy particles that may have escaped the previous processes; the silver, being the heavier metal, sinks to the bottom of the furnace, where it is left till cold. The silver when taken out cold from the furnace, is forwarded to the Mint at St. Petersburg, where a further process of refining takes place, to separate from it the particles of gold, which are always found with the silver in greater or lesser quantity.

In the neighborhood of Barnaoul, too, there are silver-mines belonging to the crown, the produce of which is sent to that town for smelting into large bars. Five hundred men are employed in the laboratory, which is a quarter of a verst square. One of the smelting-houses is three hundred feet long, and another nearly four hundred feet; they are very wide, and have several tiers of furnaces, which are supplied by a staircase behind, and provided with bellows of most gigantic dimensions. The annual produce is stated at about two hundred and fifty puds of silver, and a million of other metals, principally lead, copper, and iron. When the silver is sent to St. Petersburg, gold is extracted from it in proportion of about twenty-five puds of gold to a thousand puds of silver. There are one hundred and fifteen smelting ovens in all, twelve large open hearths, twelve refining-furnaces, five furnaces for separating the copper, and fourteen calcining-ovens. Four hundred thousand puds of coal for the refining-furnaces, and five million puds for other furnaces and ovens, are consumed annually.

The whole population of the province or government of Tomsk, amounting to a hundred thousand, are more or less employed in these various mining operations; for, besides the government officials, the miners, and washers, and the refiners, there are large bodies of persons constantly employed in transporting the ore to the works, and the metal from the works to different parts of the empire; so that a district in the heart of Siberia, which we are apt to picture to ourselves as being only the scene of horrors, exiles, privation, and labor in chains, is really a bustling and flourishing place.

In one or two districts farther west than those noticed above, there are other establishments for working mines of the precious as well as those of the inferior metals. At the flourishing town of Ekaterineburg, situated at the foot of the mountains which separate Siberia from Russia proper, are some very large establishments of this kind. Mr. Cottrell, in the course of a western journey of four thousand miles from Irktusk to St. Petersburg, stopped a little while at this town, and thus speaks of

some of the operations in the neighborhood:—"There are two establishments belonging to individuals, which are really royal. The one between thirty and forty versts' distance belonging to M. Jacoblef, a gentleman of St. Petersburg, perhaps in absolute ready money, the wealthiest in the world: and the other three hundred versts off, which we had not time to visit, belonging to Mr. Demidof, who is known personally to many of our readers, and to many more by the fame of his colossal fortune, which is, however, far smaller than that of M. Jacoblef. The establishment of the latter gentleman is a complete town. He employs several thousand workmen, who are all well lodged and fed. There are for their use an hospital, church, various schools, a public dispensary, clergy, medical men, schoolmasters, and very good shops of every kind, all belonging to the proprietor, and kept up at his expense. The director of the whole has a salary of fifty thousand roubles a year; and the appearance of comfort and good management that pervades it, is the best proof that the establishment is flourishing, not less as it regards the employer than the employed."

Gold-mines were part of the wealth here alluded to as possessed by M. Jacoblef; but iron constitutes the principal element of his commercial greatness. The large works of M. Demidof relate to copper, platinum, and molachite. In 1840 he brought into the market a hundred puds of platinum—an enormous quantity, when the costly value of the metal is taken into account.

These details seem to show that there are agencies at work in the heart of the Russian empire, which will give to it a commercial character not to be despised, however small when compared with that of England. From the descriptions given by Mr. Cottrell, it appears that the population in these manufacturing towns, comprising a large section of the middle classes to which manufacturers are sure indirectly to give rise, is far in advance of the population of other towns in the empire, where the military and government officials are the only important persons in the place. He says that at Barnaoul, the center of the busy smelting and refining district, there are more persons of literary acquirement than in all the rest of Siberia put together; although Tobolsk, Irktusk, Tomsk, &c., are the great government stations of the country, and have large numbers of officers and official agents.

ART. VII.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.—No. VII.

1801. *Commerce.*—The value of the exports of the United States was upwards of $93,000,000. The tonnage of the United States was upwards of $900,000. The amount of duties received by the United States was upwards of $20,000,000; and of drawbacks paid by the states, toward $8,000,000.

Newspapers.—There were now printed in the United States about 200 newspapers; 17 of which were printed daily; 7, three times a week; 30, twice a week; and 146 weekly.

1802. *Merino sheep.*—David Humphreys, late minister to the court of Madrid, imported into New England 100 of the Merino breed of sheep from Spain, to improve the breed of that useful animal in his own country. Some were also imported by R. R. Livingston.

Sheet copper.—The only manufactory of sheet copper in America was in Massachusetts.

Louisiana.—The value of the articles imported this year into the United States from Louisiana and the Floridas was $1,006,214; the value of the articles exported to those places was above $1,100,000.*

1803. *Louisiana purchased by the United States.*—Louisiana was purchased of the French republic by the United States for $15,000,000. On a representation to the Spanish government of the injury done to the United States by its officer, who had suspended the right of deposit at New Orleans, that right had been restored. The government, however, had been previously aware of the danger to which the public peace would be perpetually exposed, whilst so important a key to the commerce of the western country remained under a foreign power; and propositions had been authorized for obtaining, on fair conditions, the sovereignty of New Orleans, and of other possessions in that quarter. At this juncture, the government of France, perceiving the importance, to both nations, of such arrangements as might permanently promote their mutual peace, interests, and friendship, transferred to the United States, on certain conditions, the property and sovereignty of all Louisiana.

1804. *Genesee.*—The harbor of Genesee was made a port of entry.

1806. *Treaty with Great Britain—not ratified.*—A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between Great Britain and the United States, was concluded at London, and signed by the American commissioners, Monroe and Pinckney; but it was not ratified by the American government.

Lehigh coal.—The Lehigh coal, obtained at the Mauch Chunk mountain, in Pennsylvania, which had for some time been only used by the blacksmiths and people in the immediate vicinity, was brought into notice. William Turnbull had an ark constructed at Lausanne, which brought down 200 or 300 bushels to Philadelphia.†

1808. *Slave trade abolished.*—The importation of Africans into the United States ceased by law on the 1st of January.

1810. *Rambouillet decree.*—The Rambouillet decree, alleged to be designed to retaliate the act of Congress which forbade French vessels to enter the ports of the United States, was issued by Bonaparte on the 23d of March. By this decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized and condemned.

1811. *Sugar, wine, and oil made in Georgia.*—On the failure of cotton, the planters of Georgia turned their attention to sugar, wine, and oil. Mr. John Cooper, of St. Simon's made two pipes of excellent red

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* The estimate is $1,124,710; of which $170,110 worth only were domestic articles.

† Account of the discovery of anthracite coal on the Lehigh, by Thomas C. James, M. D., in Memoirs Pennsylvania, Hist. Society, i. 315. About the beginning of the year 1792, the "Lehigh Coal Mine Company" was formed, but without a charter of incorporation. This company "took up about 8 or 10,000 acres of, until then, unlocated land, including the Mauch Chunk mountain, but probably never worked the mine." In the trial of the coal, in 1806, it was "rejected as unmanageable;" and seems not to have been extensively used until about the year 1820. That year, the quantity of coal sent from Mauch Chunk to Philadelphia by water was 16,000 bushels. The quantity was very rapidly increased annually until 1825, when it was 546,236 bushels. In half the season, up to the 10th of August, 1826, there descended to Philadelphia 20,260 tons, equal to 567,280 bushels.

wine. Sweet and castor oil was made in great abundance on the sea coast of Georgia. Mr. Thomas Spalding, Mr. Cooper, and Mr. Grant, made parcels of Muscovado sugar. At Mr. Spalding's plantation, on Sapelo island, were made twenty-five pounds of good sugar, and the next year, eighty-four pounds.

Trade with Asia.—The sum of $2,950,000 was shipped from the port of Philadelphia alone to Canton and Calcutta; supposed to be about one-half of the whole amount exported in this year from the United States to Asia.

Hemp.—Kentucky manufactures of hemp were valued at $500,000.

1812. *Embargo law.*—A law was passed on the 3d of April, and signed by the president on the 4th, laying an embargo for 90 days. An act was soon after passed, to prohibit the exportation of specie, goods, wares, and merchandise, during the continuance of the embargo.

1813. *Cotton manufactories.*—In Baltimore and its vicinity there were now running about 9,000 spindles in the cotton manufactories; 1,500 or 2,000 more were to go into operation before the 1st of January.

1815. *Commercial convention.*—A convention to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States and of his Britannic majesty was signed at London on the 3d of July. By the first article, a reciprocal liberty of commerce was agreed upon between the territories of the United States of America and all the territories of his Britannic majesty in Europe. This convention was ratified by the president on the 22d of December.

Roads and canals.—The president recalled the attention of Congress to the great importance of establishing throughout our country the roads and canals which can best be executed under the national authority; observing, that considerations of political economy are strengthened "by the political effects of these facilities for intercommunication, in bringing and binding more closely together the various parts of our extended confederacy." A water intercourse with Concord, in New Hampshire, was opened by way of the canals on the Merrimack. The first boat of the Merrimack Company arrived at the landing at Concord on the 23d of June.

1816. *Bank.*—A National Bank was established by act of Congress.

Emigrations to the United States.—In this and the preceding year there were great emigrations from England and Ireland to America. This year, 1,192 American and foreign vessels arrived at New York, bringing to that port alone 7,122 passengers.

1817. *New York canal.*—The first law, establishing a canal fund, and directing the canal to be commenced, was passed by the legislature of New York. The first excavation was begun on the 4th of July.

Manufactures.—The Delaware Society for promoting American manufactures was instituted at Wilmington. The Scotch loom, by Gilmore, was introduced at the Lyman factory, at North Providence.

1819. *Steam-ship.*—The first steam-ship sailed for Europe in May.

1822. *Steamboats on the Mississippi.*—In nine years, since the enrollment and license of the first steamboat employed in trade on the Mississippi, there were 89 boats enrolled at the port of New Orleans, forming, in the aggregate, a tonnage exceeding 18,000 tons. The Arkansas river had already been several times ascended by a steamboat, more than 500 miles from the Mississippi.

1823. *Canal navigation.*—On the 1st of October the whole line of the canal between Albany and Schenectady was prepared for the reception of water. On that part of the line there were two stupendous aqueducts, and 29 locks between Albany and Schenectady. On the 8th of the month, the first boats passed from the west and north, through the canal, into the tide waters of Hudson and Albany, amidst the celebration of thousands.

Patterson.—At Patterson, New Jersey, there were 3 extensive woollen factories, and 2 duck factories, supplying, in a great measure, the United States navy with canvass, and consuming upwards of 1 ton of flax per day; 3 factories making machinery, one of which is stated to be the most extensive and complete of any in the United States; 3 most extensive bleach greens; 2 brass and iron foundries; saw and grist mills; paper mill; rolling and slitting mill; nail factory, and a reed factory. There also were 4 places of public worship, 1 seminary, 6 schools, and 2 printing offices.

1824. *Sugar.*—The crop of sugar in Louisiana was estinated at 40,000 hogsheads.

1826. *Railroad.*—The Quincy railroad was opened on 7th October.

Treaty with Central America.—A general convention of peace, amity, commerce, and navigation, between the United States of America and the federation of the Centre of America, was ratified by the president, on the 28th of October.

Canal.—The line of the Blackstone canal from Worcester to Providence was marked out; about 500 hundred hands were actively engaged in its construction.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

COLLISION—THE ITINERANT.

In the British Admiralty Court, before Dr. Lushington, January 23, 1844. Dr. Lushington gave judgment in this case, which stood over from the 20th of December, 1843, to enable the Court and Trinity Masters to consider some nice nautical points. The learned judge now stated, with reference to the facts, that it might have been prudent for the Itinerant, which, in a foggy night, was under a press of sail, to have taken in her studding sails; but the Court was not of opinion that the collision was occasioned by the omission of the Itinerant so to do, and that the conduct of that vessel did not make her responsible for the damage sustained by the Isabella. The foundation of the judgment of the Court was, that where measures of prudence ought to be adopted, which must be very difficult, and almost impossible to define beforehand, and which particular measures must depend upon circumstances almost always varying—such as the state of the wind, the tide, and the number of vessels in the neighborhood—it was impossible to ascribe direct blame to any vessel, merely because she did not adopt a particular measure of precaution which could not be defined beforehand; and as the onus lay on the party charging the Itinerant to make out their case, and as they had not done so satisfactorily to the Court, that vessel was not held responsible. But it was not to be understood, (the learned judge added,) from this judgment, that in every case of this kind the Court would hold the party discharged from liability. In the present case, both the Court and the Trinity Masters released the Itinerant, more especially on the ground that they were all of opinion that the accident would have occurred, let what might have been done.

BOTTOMRY BOND—THE SHIP LORD COCHRANE.

In the British Admiralty Court, June 21, 1844. This was a question as to the validity of a bottomry bond, given at Pernambuco, upon the ship, cargo, and freight. The vessel, which belonged to Mr. Benson, of Liverpool, left this country in the spring of 1839, destined to the island of Ascension, with government stores, and afterwards to go to Pernambuco for cargo. She landed the stores at Ascension, disposed of the remainder of her cargo at Pernambuco, and took a homeward freight. In leaving the port, she sustained damage by running on the bar, and was forced to put back and repair. The bond was given to cover advances for this purpose, and the result of this accident was very unfortunate, the repairs and expenses incurred by the master exceeding the value of the ship and freight; and the present question was, whether the remainder, nearly 5,000*l.*, should fall upon the cargo.

Dr. Addams, (with whom was Dr. Bayford,) in opposition to the bond, did not question its validity, generally; but as affecting the cargo, and the owners of the cargo. Till the case of the Gratitudine, it was a question whether, under any circumstances, it was in the power of the master of a ship to hypothecate the cargo; but, in that case, Lord Stowell held that a master might, under particular and special circumstances, hypothecate cargo. In this case, there were no such special circumstances; and the advances made under the bond, though they might be for the benefit of the ship and freight, were not for the benefit of the cargo.

Dr. Lushington, without hearing Dr. Harding and Dr. Elphinstone in support of the bond, was clearly of opinion that there was no tenable ground of opposition to it. The master was without funds or credit at Pernambuco; and, although the respectability of the owner was well known, he had furnished the master with no authority to draw upon any person in the Brazils; and there was nothing in the whole transaction, unfortunate as it had turned out, which had the slightest appearance of fraud or impropriety. On the contrary, the agent for Messrs. M'Calment & Co., who had advanced the money, had acted for the best. The shippers of the cargo were upon the spot, and could have objected; but, with one or two trifling exceptions, they had acquiesced. It was idle to suppose that the cargo could be exempted from liability, where the ship and freight were insufficient; and he pronounced for the validity of the bond, with interest and costs.

COLLISION—SCHOONERS CHRISTINA AND DRAPER.

In the British Admiralty Court, March 12, 1844. The collision in this case occurred on the night of the 29th of November, between two schooners—the Christina, of 100 tons, and the Draper, of 80 tons; the former on her voyage to Rouen, with coals, the latter from Exmouth to Portsmouth, with general merchandise. The place of the accident was between Dungeness and the North Foreland. The consequences of the collision were, that the Draper sank in a quarter of an hour afterwards, and the Christina was obliged to put into Ramsgate to repair her damage. The evidence as to all the material facts—direction of the wind, courses of the vessels, points from whence seen, and measures taken before and after the occurrence—was in a state of utter conflict. The Court was assisted by Trinity Masters. After hearing Dr. Addams and Dr. Pratt for the Draper, and the Queen's Advocate and Dr. Bayford for the Christina, Dr. Lushington summed up the case to the gentlemen by whom he was assisted, observing that it was wholly impossible to reconcile the affidavits, and difficult to say to which side credit should be given. The Trinity Masters said that this case was so contradictory, altogether, in its statements, that, previous to coming into Court, they had requested the assistance of the Deputy-Master. Both vessels stated that they saw the other on the lee bow, steering in opposite directions, and both stated that they were close-hauled, which was impossible. From certain admitted facts, however, they were of opinion that the Christina's statement had been borne out, and that no blame attached to her; but that the blame attached exclusively to the Draper, the vessel sunk. The learned judge pronounced for the damage; adding that, however he might regret it, yet, according to the principles adopted in other Courts, and as a matter of justice to the other party, he was bound to give the costs.

MARINE INSURANCE—ELLWAND *vs.* M'DONNELL.

In the British Rolls' Court, July 6, 1844, before Lord Langdale. This cause came on upon the defendant's exceptions to the master's report, that his further answer was insufficient. Mr. Kindersley, Mr. Turner, and Mr. Hetherington, were for the defendant against, and Mr. Heathfield for the plaintiff for, the report. The bill stated the formation, in Dublin, of "The Patriotic Assurance Company of Ireland," in 1826; their employment of the defendant, who, at the time of filing the bill, was a member, as their agent in England; that William Ellwand, the plaintiff's father, insured with them goods on board the Anne, from Liverpool to Buenos Ayres; and the defendant, as the company's agent, signed the policy for 500*l.* The Anne was captured by the Brazilian government, and the goods were seized and condemned. William Ellwand brought an action for a total loss, on which the company proposed to pay 60*l.* per cent; Ellwand to make what he could of his goods, by salvage or compensation. Ellwand agreed, on having his costs. The 200*l.*, and costs, were paid—Ellwand delivered up the policy, on which a memorandum was endorsed by the defendant, "Settled—60*l.* per cent, by compromise, in full of all claim;" and the company gave up the goods, and renounced all right to salvage or compensation. The Brazilian government afterwards made compensation, which they paid to the British charge-d'affaires, and he transferred to the company, who sent out powers to claim from the commissioners a portion of the indemnity. William Ellwand died, leaving the plaintiff his executor, who filed the bill, insisting that the company were trustees for him; charging that the defendant was a member, and that by their act all actions and suits were to be instituted against the secretary, or against any one member, as the nominal defendant on behalf of the company, and containing various interrogatories for discovery. The prayer was for a declaration that the plaintiff was entitled to the whole of the moneys received from the Brazilian government.

The defendant, in his first answer, of February, 1843, said he was, but is not now, one of the members—in his second answer, of November last, he said he was not a member, but was one at the time of filing the original bill; and, in his last answer, said he constantly resided in London, never had any share in the direction, which was carried on in Dublin entirely by the directors there, who had the exclusive custody of the books, and that he was the London agent.

Lord Langdale said the single question was, whether the answer was sufficient. The plaintiff, being resident here, did not go to Ireland, where he might sue the secretary, but sued the defendant here in England, and wanted a discovery of papers. The defendant said, "I am not a member—I was one, but am not now, and I have no right to get at the documents." The only answer he had heard to this, was, "You must be able to get them somehow or other;" and the argument was, "You were a member when the bill was filed, and cannot get rid of your liability as such, by any subsequent act." The defendant had divested himself, he would not say properly, it might be improper, of the power of giving the discovery, and was he to be put into jail? Had the defendant put in the best answer he was able; and, having divested himself of the power of obtaining certain information, was he to be sent to prison because he could not get it? No authority had been cited; neither was he to send the defendant to jail because his solicitor could not find papers. The defendant having been a partner during the liabilities, had now ceased to be one. He might be liable personally, but had no right to walk into the company's office, and say, "Give me the information." The account he had given ought to exempt him—the exceptions must be allowed, and the deposit returned.

SALVAGE—THE GLASGOW PACKET.

In the British Court of Admiralty, June 3, 1844. Dr. Lushington gave sentence in this case. The vessel proceeded against, bound from Glasgow to London, had been run into by another vessel, whilst at Gravesend-reach; upon which her rudder was slipped, and she was towed by the Tam O'Shanter to the Essex shore, in the performance of which service three men from the Spring assisted, and some parts of the cargo were put on board the Grey Mare Meg. The services

of the salvors commenced, according to their own account, while the vessel was in this condition at anchor, and likely to sink. The learned Judge directed his attention to the following points:—first, when the service did commence; second, of what kind it was, and the degree of merit to be attributed to it; third, when it ended. The salvors alleged that it commenced about eleven o'clock on the 30th of November, by the mate hailing them to save what they could: this averment was not specifically denied, and was supported by affidavits. The Hope and the Confidence afterwards came up, and the mate gave charge of the vessel to two of the salvors; and as the Court must take the meaning of the written document from its contents, not from any parol explanation, the effect of this charge was, that the care of the vessel was given to the persons named, and that it conveyed an authority to do all they thought fit for the preservation of the property. He was therefore of the opinion that those salvors were entitled to be paid a reasonable compensation for their exertions, from about noon, of the 30th of November, till some time on the 2d of December, when the persons arrived from London. The tender of 9*l.* 12*s.* he thought inadequate for these services; but before he adjudicated, he must look to subsequent occurrences. The next question was, whether these men were legally discharged from further interference with the vessel, and when. In ordinary cases, when the services of the first set of salvors had been accepted, and they were competent to perform the whole service, they could not be dispossessed by subsequent salvors; but here the vessel was actually sunk, and the original salvors could not have raised her, and besides, the owners were on the spot. Nor had possession been acquired by successful services, and there was no necessity for keeping the ship as a security; the owners were known, and the ship could not have escaped the process of the court. If, then, they were discharged *de facto* by the owners or their agents, there was no justifiable pretence for any attempt to continue their services, and they could not claim payment for what was due against the will of the owners. As to the fact of their having been discharged on the 2d of December, when the persons arrived who were hired to weigh the ship, there can be no doubt. He considered the subsequent conduct of the salvors after their discharge as exceedingly reprehensible, and he should not allow any compensation to them for services, if they were services, improperly intruded. He pronounced against the tender, and gave 40*l.* for the services performed between the 30th of November and the 2d of December, and he limited the cost of salvors to 20*l.* *nomine expensarum*. He could not concluded without adverting to the affidavits made by a person of the name of Neale. In the first, he stated that "unless there had been a great number of men employed in addition to to those provided by the said Benjamin Jones and a part of the schooner's crew who were also there, the schooner could not possibly have been raised, and that there was, with the said James Groves and the men who acted with him, scarcely strength enough for that purpose." In the second affidavit, he swore, "that the barges, lighters, and apparatus with the deponent and the other men employed by the said Benjamin Jones, coupled with the assistance of the schooner's crew, were amply sufficient for raising the schooner"—in its very terms contradicting what he had originally sworn. He (the learned Judge) should consider the propriety of submitting these affidavits to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and whether their lordships might not think it right and proper to give directions to their solicitor to prosecute this person, and all others who should so attempt to pervert the course of justice.

SALVAGE—THE JOHN GOODALL.

In the British Court of Admiralty, July 12, 1844. The vessel in this case was sued by no less than three sets of salvors, each bringing a separate action, and appearing by two counsel. The short facts of the case were these:—The vessel of 399 tons burden, had left London, bound on a voyage to the Cape and Calcutta, with a valuable cargo, in tow of a steam-tug, the Gray Mare Meg, on the 24th of April last. She had arrived off Gravesend, and anchored close to the Kentish shore, where, in the night, she was discovered to be on fire in the hold, supposed to be the effect of spontaneous combustion. A signal of distress was

hoisted, there was presently no lack of assistance—21 skiffs, with 67 Gravesend men on board, including two pilots and two steam vessels, the Gray Mare Meg and the Lion, offered their services, and the people on board the John Goodall were literally "encumbered with help." The vessel was conveyed from the Kent to the Essex shore, and scuttled so as to extinguish the flames; part of the property, especially the chronometers, was carried on shore, and she was finally conveyed towards London, the constant pumping being insufficient too keep her free. The present value of the property, after the damage sustained by fire and water, was 13,382*l.* The owners had tendered 120*l.* to the steamer Gray Mare Meg, and 100*l.* to the Lion, but made no tender to the pilots or the Gravesend men, considering their services to have been unnecessary and intrusive. The parties were represented respectively by the Queen's advocate, Dr. Phillimore, Dr. Addams, Dr Haggard, Dr. Harding, Dr. Bayford, Dr. R. Phillimore, and Dr. H. Nicholl.

Dr. Lushington, after investigating and discriminating with great care the facts and nature of the services rendered by the respective claimants, came to the conclusion that the services rendered by the Gravesend men had been promptly and efficiently rendered, though they were not of a nature to be highly rewarded, and he allotted to them 250*l.*, out of which two, named Briggs and Dicks, were to be paid 5*l.* each, in addition to their share; to the Gray Mare Meg he gave 150*l.*, instead of 120*l.*, the sum tendered; and with respect to the Lion, which had done no more than tug the disabled vessel, with the assistance of the other steamer, up to London, he pronounced in favor of the tender, though without (under the circumstances) condemning the owners of that vessel in the costs. The learned Judge commented severely upon the unnecessary proceeding, on the part of the salvors, in three separate actions, and intimated, that if it were repeated, he should take measures to repress the practice.

The Queen's Advocate (for the owners.)—Are the owners to pay the costs of all the three parties? Dr. Lushington.—The costs of one set of salvors, to whom you made an insufficient tender; but not the costs of the Lion.

MARINE INSURANCE.

Western Circuit, Bristol, (England,) before Chief Justice Patteson, and a special jury. Parfit *vs.* Thompson and others. This action was brought to recover the amount of the loss on a policy of insurance for 2,000*l.*, which had been effected on a vessel called the "Hutchinson," by the Forth Marine Insurance Company, of which the defendants were members. The ship was built in 1825, and purchased by the plaintiff in 1838, when she was repaired at an expense of 1,500*l.* In 1841, she was chartered by Laurie, Hamilton & Co., on a voyage to Sierra Leone, and then this insurance was effected. On the 10th of March, 1841, the vessel sailed from Bristol, under the command of Captain White. In the Bay of Biscay the weather was very bad, but the vessel arrived in the Malacouri river on the 15th of April, where it remained till the 9th of July, when she sailed for England. When off the Isles de Los, there was very rough weather; but when off Cape Verd, the windlass, anchor, &c., were lost, and the vessel became leaky, and with some difficulty reached the Gambia river. An agent of Lloyd's then surveyed the vessel, and it being found necessary that very considerable repairs must be done, and which could not be completed there, it was considered best to sell the vessel, which fetched 411*l.* The defendants contended that they were not liable for a total loss, but only a portion; and they paid 400*l.* into Court, and alleged that the question was, whether the vessel had sustained the damage by the perils of the sea, or through unworthiness.

Mr. Justice Patteson having summed up, the jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff, the amount of damage to be regulated by Mr. Powell, of London.

COLLISION—BRITISH BRIGS SUSAN AND COLONIA.

In the British Admiralty Court, before Dr. Lushington, January 23, 1844. This was a cross action between the owners of two brigs, the Susan and the Colonia, which, on the afternoon of the 4th of October, in daylight, the weather being fair, came into collision off Folkestone. The fault of the collision was attributed by each vessel to the other, and this question depended upon the consid-

eration of matters of nautical science; to determine which, the Court had the assistance of Trinity Masters. After hearing Dr. Addams and Dr. R. Phillimore for the Susan, and the Queen's Advocate and Dr. Bayford for the Colonia, the Trinity Masters delivered it as their opinion that the collision was entirely in consequence of the Colonia starboarding her helm when she ought to have put it to port, and that there was no reason, whatever, to impute any blame to the Susan. Dr. Lushington pronounced for the claim of the Susan, and dismissed the owners of that vessel from the other action, with costs.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE MARKETS—PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, AT DIFFERENT PERIODS—PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN, FROM 1841 TO 1844—IMPORTS OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM—GROSS REVENUE ON MERCHANDISE—POPULATION AND REVENUE OF THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN—TRAFFIC OF GERMAN RAILWAYS, FOR 1844—CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR IN THE ZOLL-VEREIN, IN 1844.

THE markets have, during the past month, presented an anomalous appearance. At the close of our article for April, we briefly alluded to the new reductions of duties upon articles of foreign growth consumed in England, leading to an increased demand for United States produce. The influence of those advices, as a general cause, added to some collateral reasons, produced considerable animation and rise in many important articles. The result of this rise has been naturally an increase in the demand for money, inasmuch as that the same quantity of produce requires now for its purchase a larger sum of money than was the case some months since. The progress of prices in New York is expressed in the following table:—

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

	1843.	1844.			
	Oct. 14.	Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 8.	Sept. 7.
Ashes, ...bbl.	$4 50	$4 75	$4 50	$4 25	$4 25
Beeswax, N. Y.,.....100 lbs.	29 00	30 00	29 75	29 50	30 00
Candles, tallow, m.....	11 50	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
" sperm,.....	33 00	33 00	32 00	32 00	32 00
Coal, anth.,.....ton	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 25	5 50
Cordage, Am.,.....100 lbs.	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
Cotton, N. O. fair,.....	8 75	10 75	8 87	8 25	7 50
Cot. bagging, Ky.,..100 yds.	16 00	16 00	16 00	17 00	17 00
Sheetings, B. 4-4,.....	5 50	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00
Dry cod,.....cwt.	2 37	2 75	3 00	3 00	2 50
Mackerel, No. 1,.....bbl.	10 00	10 87	10 87	10 25	10 75
Flax, Am.,.....100 lbs.	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 50
Flour, Western,.....bbl.	4 50	4 94	5 06	4 56	4 25
" Rye,.....	3 12	3 62	3 25	3 12	3 12
Wheat,.....bushel	95	1 05	1 12	98	92
Rye,.....	65	70	71	67	67
Corn,.....	52	48	54	47	46
Hemp, dew rotted,.....cwt.	5 75	5 50	5 75	4 50	5 00
Hops,.....100 lbs.	10 00	9 00	8 00	8 00	8 00
Iron, Am. pig,.....ton	27 50	28 50	28 50	30 00	30 00
" rolled,.....	70 00	70 00	77 50	80 00	80 00
Lead, pig,.....100 lbs.	3 45	3 55	3 30	3 45	3 47
Molasses, N. O.,....100 gals.	27 00	32 00	30 00	31 00	32 00
Tar,.....bbl.	1 75	1 50	1 62	1 56	1 69
Turpentine, N. C., soft, ...	2 50	2 62	2 75	2 62	2 37
Lead, W. Am.,.....100 lbs.	8 00	8 00	8 00	8 00	7 00
Oil, whale,.....100 gal.	38 50	40 00	35 00	34 00	38 00
Beef, mess,.....bbl.	6 75	6 25	6 50	5 50	5 75
Pork,.....	11 00	9 62	9 25	8 62	9 50

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE, ETC.—Continued.

	1843. Oct. 14.	1844. Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 8.	Sept. 7.
Lard, Ohio,.....100 lbs.	$8 00	$7 25	$7 50	$6 25	$6 50
Butter, Wes. dairy,.....	14 00	16 00	18 00	15 00	11 00
Cheese,.....	5 50	5 50	7 00	5 50	5 50
Rice,.....	3 00	2 87	3 25	3 25	3 62
Clover,.....	8 50	11 00	8 59	8 00	8 75
Whiskey,.....100 galls.	25 00	24 00	23 25	23 50	25 00
Steel, Am.,.....100 lbs.	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00
Sugar, N. O.,.....	6 87	7 25	7 37	7 25	7 00
Tallow,.....	7 50	7 25	7 00	7 00	7 25
Tobacco, Ky.,.....	6 50	6 50	6 50	6 00	6 00
Whalebone,.....	48 00	50 00	35 00	30 75	48 00
Wool, Merino,.....	32 00	42 00	42 00	40 00	43 00
Total, 41 articles,.....	$538 43	$567 07	$549 21	$545 50	$558 82

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PRODUCE, ETC.—Continued.

	1844. Nov. 16.	1845. Jan. 4.	Feb. 5.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	Apl 5.
Ashes,.....bbl.	$4 00	$3 75	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00
Beeswax, N. Y.,.....100 lbs.	29 50	29 50	29 50	30 00	30 00	30 00
Candles, tallow, m.,.....	12 00	12 00	12 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
" sperm,.....	31 00	30 00	29 00	28 00	29 00	29 00
Coal, anth.,.....ton	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00	6 00
Cordage, Am.,.....100 lbs.	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00	12 00
Cotton, N. O. fair,.....	7 00	6 37	6 25	7 00	7 37	7 37
Cotton bagging, Ky.,.100 yards	17 00	17 00	15 00	15 00	15 00	15 00
Sheetings, B. 4-4,.....	8 00	8 00	8 00	6 50	7 50	7 50
Dry cod,.....cwt.	2 62	2 50	2 50	2 75	2 75	2 75
Mackerel, No. 1,.....bbl.	11 75	12 50	12 50	12 00	11 75	11 75
Flax, Am.,.....100 lbs.	8 50	8 50	8 50	8 00	8 00	7 00
Flour, Western,.....bbl.	4 69	4 68	4 87	4 87	4 81	4 75
" Rye,.....	3 50	3 37	3 62	3 25	3 25	3 12
Wheat,.....bush.	1 05	1 00	1 00	1 00	1 05	1 05
Rye,.....	70	68	68	67	71	70
Corn,.....	50	50	45	47	48	49
Hemp, dew rotted,.....cwt.	4 37	4 50	4 75	4 70	4 75	4 75
Hops,.....100 lbs.	12 75	15 00	15 00	15 00	14 00	14 00
Iron, Am. pig,.....ton	31 00	31 00	32 50	34 00	34 00	37 00
" rolled,.....	80 00	80 00	80 00	87 50	95 00	95 00
Lead, pig,.....100 lbs.	4 12	4 00	3 87	3 50	4 00	4 00
Molasses, N. O.,.....100 galls.	30 00	22 00	23 00	27 00	35 00	36 00
Tar,.....bbl.	1 94	1 75	1 75	1 56	1 56	1 56
Turpentine, N. C., soft,.....	2 37	2 50	2 62	2 62	2 81	2 75
Lead, W. Am.,.....100 lbs.	7 00	7 00	7 00	8 50	7 50	7 50
Oil, whale,.....100 galls.	35 00	33 00	31 50	30 25	32 00	32 00
Beef, mess,.....bbl.	6 50	7 00	7 25	7 50	8 75	9 25
Pork,.....	9 00	9 50	10 00	10 25	14 00	13 75
Lard, Ohio,.....100 lbs.	6 25	6 50	7 00	7 00	8 00	8 25
Butter, Western dairy,.....	14 00	14 00	15 00	16 00	15 00	15 00
Cheese,.....	5 75	6 50	7 00	8 00	8 00	8 00
Rice,.....	3 62	3 25	3 31	3 50	3 62	3 62
Clover,.....	7 50	8 00	7 37	7 25	7 00	7 00
Whiskey,.....100 gallons	28 00	25 50	23 00	23 00	24 50	24 50
Steel, Am.,.....100 lbs.	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00	5 00
Sugar, N. O.,.....	6 75	5 00	5 50	6 25	7 50	7 50
Tallow,.....	7 37	7 25	7 25	7 00	7 00	7 00
Tobacco, Ky.,.....	6 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50
Whalebone,.....	41 00	40 00	35 00	35 00	35 00	35 00
Wool, Merino,.....	42 00	38 00	38 00	38 00	38 00	38 00
Total, 41 articles,.....	$557 30	$540 10	$533 59	$514 70	$572 26	$575 41

The aggregate, down to April 5th, shows an advance of $41 82, or nearly 9 per cent, from February 5th, a period of sixty days. The improvement did not, however, pervade every article, but evinced itself in some of leading importance; such as ashes, cotton, iron, molasses, sugar, lard, pork, beef, and cheese. The rise in the value of these articles required an additional sum, equal to $30,000,000, to represent the same quantities. The effect of this upon the money market has been to advance and steady the rate of interest, which has ruled 6 to 6½ per cent, very nearly, since the 1st of February. During the corresponding period of last year, the rate of interest, which had advanced to 7½ per cent in February, under the large speculations in cotton, suddenly fell off, in the months of March and April, to 3 a 3½ per cent, and promoted a considerable rise in stocks, as well as of imported goods. The prices of both, however, declined subsequently. This year, the speculation seems rather to run in the articles of agricultural produce, and thereby holds out the promise of greater permanence in the evidently increasing general prosperity. The change which has been undergone in the prices of imported goods, at periods corresponding with those included in the above table, is as follows:—

PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK.

	1843. Oct. 14.	1844. Feb. 14.	April 20.	June 5.	Sept. 7.
Barilla,.....ton	$27 00	$27 00	$28 00	$27 00	$30 00
Bristles, St. Peter,.....lb.	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10
Coal, Liverpool,.....chald.	10 00	8 87	8 25	8 25	9 50
Cocoa, Guayaquil,..100 lbs.	9 50	9 50	9 50	9 50	9 00
Coffee, Cuba,.....	8 00	7 50	7 50	7 50	7 50
Copper, sheathing,.....	22 00	22 00	22 00	21 50	21 00
Opium, Turkey,.....lb.	2 50	3 50	3 50	3 25	3 25
Balsam Copaiva,.....100 lbs.	23 00	35 00	24 00	25 00	25 00
Saleratus,.....	5 00	4 75	4 50	4 50	4 00
Duck, Russian,.....piece	17 50	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00
Fustic, Cuba,.....ton	26 00	26 00	26 00	26 00	28 00
Flax, Russian,.....100 lbs.	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
Raisins, bunch,.....box	1 75	2 12	2 25	2 25	2 37
Hemp, Russ., clean,...cwt.	9 55	9 55	9 55	9 55	9 00
Hides,.....100 lbs.	13 50	12 75	13 50	13 25	12 50
Indigo, Madras,.....lb.	1 00	1 00	90	90	87
Iron, Eng. pig,.....ton	26 00	34 00	32 50	35 00	34 00
" common bar,.....	57 50	57 50	57 50	65 00	65 00
Mahogany, St. Dom.,.100 ft.	40 00	50 00	55 00	55 00	80 00
Oil, Eng. linseed,.....gallon	85	90	85	75	75
Plaster Paris,.....	2 00	2 25	2 50	2 50	2 25
Salt, Turk's Isl.,..100 bush.	26 00	30 00	31 00	34 00	26 50
Cloves,.....100 lbs.	27 00	27 00	26 00	26 00	26 00
Pepper,.....	8 75	10 75	10 75	11 00	10 75
Brandy, Otard,.....gall.	2 50	2 65	2 81	2 81	2 65
Sugar, Cuba m.,.....100 lbs.	7 50	7 25	7 50	7 00	6 75
Teas, Hyson,.....lb.	90	90	80	90	1 00
Total, 27 articles,.....	$387 40	$411 84	$405 76	$420 51	$446 74

PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—Continued.

	1844. Nov. 16.	1845. Jan. 4.	Feb. 1.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	April 5.
Barilla,.....ton	$30 00	$32 00	$32 00	$33 00	$32 00	$32 00
Bristles, St. Peter,.....lb.	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10	1 10
Coal, Liverpool,.....chald.	10 25	10 50	10 50	10 00	10 25	10 25
Cocoa, Guayaquil,..100 lbs.	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00	9 00
Coffee, Cuba,.....	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 00	7 25
Copper, sheathing,.....	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50	21 50
Opium, Turkey,.....lb.	3 40	3 50	3 50	3 75	5 00	5 00
Balsam Copaiva,.....100 lbs.	25 00	25 00	25 00	24 00	24 00	24 00

PRICES OF IMPORTED GOODS IN NEW YORK—Continued.

	1844. Nov. 16.	1845. Jan. 4.	Feb. 1.	Mar. 5.	Mar. 29.	April 5.
Saleratus,.....	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00	$4 00	$4 25
Duck, Russian,.....piece	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00	17 00
Fustic, Cuba,.....ton	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00	28 00
Flax, Russian,.....100 lbs.	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00	11 00
Raisins, bunch,.....box	2 62	2 75	2 70	2 65	2 60	2 55
Hemp, Russ. clean,.....ton	8 75	9 25	9 50	9 75	10 50	10 25
Hides,.....100 lbs.	12 25	12 25	12 00	11 75	12 00	12 00
Indigo, Madras,.....lb.	90	90	90	90	87	87
Iron, Eng. pig,.....ton	31 00	31 00	32 50	37 50	45 00	47 50
" common bar,.....	65 00	65 00	65 00	70 00	80 00	85 00
Mahogany, St. Dom.,.100 ft.	92 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00	75 00
Oil, Eng. linseed,.....gallon	74	73	73	75	75	75
Plaster Paris,.....	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62	2 62
Salt, Turk's Isl.,..100 bush.	26 00	24 00	24 00	24 00	27 00	27 00
Cloves,.....100 lbs.	26 00	26 00	25 50	25 50	25 50	25 50
Pepper,.....	10 25	10 00	10 00	10 50	10 75	10 75
Brandy, Otard,.....gal.	2 60	2 75	2 60	2 60	2 60	2 50
Sugar, Cuba m.,.....100 lbs.	6 75	6 50	5 50	6 00	6 00	6 00
Teas, Hyson,.....lb.	85	85	85	85	85	85
Total, 27 articles,.....	$455 53	$439 20	$439 00	$449 76	$471 89	$479 49

The advance in this class of articles is less general, during the past spring, than in that of domestic produce; and less so this, than during the same period of the last year. The animation in business, last year, evinced itself more in those articles which the agriculturists purchase, than in those which they sell. This naturally produced a slight revulsion, inasmuch as that it involved the inability of the consumers, to some extent, to pay; and several extensive failures took place during the spring season, arising from this inability to collect debts. The movement this spring has been in those articles which farmers have to sell; and the advancing money prices are indicative that the trade will react upon the Atlantic cities, in enhanced purchases of goods. The immediate incentive to this disposition to speculate, was the diminution in the Cuba crop of sugar, accompanied by such a modification of the British tariff as was estimated to enhance the consumption some 50,000 tons in the British islands. The supply of pork was also alleged to be greatly deficient, owing to a scarcity of corn in the western states. This advanced the price of that, and kindred articles, to a very considerable extent. The rise in sugar has fortunately been accompanied with a very large crop in Louisiana—consequently, the planters reap the advantage of a high value on an extensive production. In iron, a very considerable advance has taken place, based mostly on the great demand for iron for railroads, and other purposes, in England; the markets here sympathizing with the movement. It is remarkable that the progress of business, both here and in England, as well as on the continent, has been predicated upon the increased consumption of food and goods evincing a greatly improved condition of the people, in a better reward for their labor. This is generally indicated in the enhancement of all indirect taxes, both in the United States, France, Belgium, the Zoll-verein, and Great Britain. Of these, the customs duties are the most important. In the case of Great Britain, the amount of revenue has been considerably enhanced, notwithstanding that the rate of some of the duties was diminished. Perhaps, however, the exports of Great Britain afford the best indication, not only of the improvement of the markets to which her goods are sent for sale, but also of the enhanced employment her operatives have enjoyed, and the extent to which raw materials have been consumed. The following is a table of the declared value of leading heads of British exports, for four years:—

DECLARED VALUE OF EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coal and culm,	£671,929	£733,574	£685,331	£665,584
Cotton goods,	16,209,241	13,910,084	16,248,759	18,823,402
Cotton yarn,	7,262,510	7,752,676	7,191,879	7,008,184
Earthenware,	590,772	554,221	629,585	751,279
Glassware,	421,271	310,061	336,910	388,608
Manufactures of iron,	1,625,191	1,392,888	1,744,037	2,167,673
" " flax,	3,356,030	2,360,152	2,816,111	3,055,243
Yarn of flax,	900,840	1,023,978	873,164	1,021,796
Iron,	2,867,950	2,453,892	2,574,494	3,194,904
Copper and brass,	1,529,488	1,821,754	1,652,991	1,735,528
Lead,	238,461	357,377	258,669	276,296
Tin in bars,	86,708	190,911	109,943	76,655
Tin plate,	368,047	348,236	480,407	483,609
Salt,	175,663	206,639	208,207	226,940
Silk goods,	786,066	589,644	664,661	735,094
Refined sugar,	547,834	439,335	415,812	331,264
Sheep's wool,	557,676	510,965	417,835	532,478
Yarn of wool,	489,344	503,521	697,354	944,515
Manufactures of wool,	5,787,544	5,190,243	6,784,432	8,296,216
Total,	£44,545,595	£40,738,151	£44,790,563	£50,615,265

The increase is here no less than £5,900,000, or more than 12 per cent. The most important increase has been in cotton and woollen goods, and hardware. The aggregate advance in exports, from 1842, was no less than 25 per cent, notwithstanding that the prices of the articles have declined. This fact is of itself sufficient to account for the continued accumulation of coin in the vaults of the bank, during the last two years. So large an increase of the exports of the products of British industry has, to some extent, involved an enhancement of the import of raw materials, and thus helped to swell the revenues of the country. The official imports, however, show that the greatest increase in the customs of Great Britain, during the past year, has been in those articles of general consumption imported from abroad, that come under the general head of food. The following table shows the quantities of the several articles imported for three years, with the amount of gross duty collected on each, for the year 1844:—

IMPORT OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM, AND THE GROSS REVENUE PAID IN BY EACH ARTICLE, IN 1844.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	Am't duties.
Barilla, cwts.	42,780	45,340	52,440	£866
Bark,	639,433	838,088	653,937	*8,305
Butter,	180,892	148,288	180,965	186,667
Cheese,	180,829	166,584	213,523	117,272
Cocoa, lbs.	2,251,145	2,541,691	2,590,528	11,612
Coffee,	28,583,931	30,031,606	31,394,225	682,218
Wheat, qrs.	2,607,944	869,149	823,271	674,861
Barley,	49,969	223,543	1,028,902	204,806
Oats,	282,543	41,963	262,358	77,910
Rye,	28,515	2,724	28,779	9,453
Peas,	80,451	45,218	122,981	38,857
Beans,	43,279	45,702	225,680	71,181
Flour,	1,125,801	ctr. 426,794	ctr. 712,968	22,677
Cochineal, lbs.	604,240	827,456	758,912	357
Indigo,	3,135,888	2,748,928	3,639,888	*1,804
Lac dye,	838,208	776,160	948,640	*445
Fustic, tons	16,763	20,422	20,703	*2,175
Madder, cwts.	93,546	148,791	95,961	*2,523
" root,	84,788	102,194	97,266	*1,281

NOTE.—Those duties marked thus, (*) are to be removed, with the exception of sugar, on which the reduction is estimated at $6,000,000.

IMPORT OF LEADING ITEMS OF FOREIGN PRODUCE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, ETC.—Continued.

	1842.	1843.	1844.	Am't duties.
Eggs,.....No.	89,347,823	70,448,250	67,487,920	£24,606
Flax,.....cwts.	1,148,616	1,439,574	1,595,839	7,010
Currants,.....	196,522	254,744	285,368	252,218
Figs,.....	22,938	32,450	33,310	26,209
Lemons,.....boxes	335,983	ca. 286,000	ca. 348,000	71,398
Rosin,.....cwts.	186,689	237,474	202,667	*159,486
Gloves, leather,.....pairs	1,592,028	1,839,429	1,834,989	28,557
Hemp,.....cwts.	614,167	698,472	911,715	*3,990
Hides, raw,.....	537,563	537,467	631,765	*8,767
Mahogany,.....tons	16,775	24,243	24,390	*12,781
Molasses,.....cwts.	535,191	454,437	615,510	*290,885
Copper ore,.....tons	15,208	54,271	58,591	75,206
Iron,.....	14,557	12,083	21,639	22,502
Tobacco, leaf,.....lbs.	22,152,707	22,891,526	24,535,116	3,863,389
" manufactured,.....	225,355	263,813	240,602	113,648
Turpentine,.....cwts.	452,775	473,579	466,566	*2,041
Wine, Cape,.....galls.	371,255	332,729	349,584	50,446
" French,.....	382,417	347,457	492,383	141,689
" other,.....	4,321,735	5,607,267	6,235,150	1,798,961
Cotton, British,.....lbs.	70,058,016	47,194,336	65,975,952	*10,309
" other,.....	407,659,616	538,714,848	492,039,296	*672,614
Wool, sheep's,.....	44,611,465	48,656,829	69,493,358	*37,856
Zinc,.....cwts.	56,120	82,500	114,340	300
Oil, whale and sperm,.....tuns	15,784	23,424	21,400	33,763
" palm,.....cwts.	337,936	383,025	373,578	*9,807
" olive,.....galls.	2,407,860	2,552,256	2,717,316	23,493
" cocoa,.....cwts.	27,399	34,129	43,502	1,539
Quicksilver,.....lbs.	259,260	253,241	246,959	1,080
Rice,.....	252,412	259,201	327,842	8,843
" rough,.....cwts.	319,864	153,216	304,952	13,997
Saltpetre,.....	345,926	385,675	355,014	9,321
Seed, clover,.....	160,424	70,643	92,012	48,332
" flax and lin,.....bush.	2,873,928	3,745,272	4,874,360	*2,673
" rape,.....	547,824	694,648	552,128	*305
Silk, raw,.....lbs.	3,936,714	3,649,467	4,021,276	17,593
" waste,.....	1,433,712	1,495,424	1,775,872	832
" thrown,.....	363,975	335,113	410,536	22,050
Silks, European,.....	233,872	263,774	291,008	276,074
" India,.....pieces	39,988	98,497	129,814	8,461
Skins, seal,.....No.	350,955	413,216	268,865	*240
" kid,.....	477,727	444,591	419,112	1,128
" lamb, undressed,.....	854,720	1,346,127	1,561,136	*273
Cassia,.....lbs.	121,253	142,106	114,646	1,519
Cinnamon,.....	17,009	17,496	18,619	258
Cloves,.....	90,653	100,036	128,384	3,370
Mace,.....	19,010	20,371	22,689	2,978
Nutmegs,.....	170,064	168,461	109,719	15,591
Pepper,.....	2,679,624	2,790,069	3,097,563	81,313
Pimento,.....	453,488	401,520	341,152	800
Rum,.....galls.	2,097,866	2,103,989	2,198,142	1,025,858
Brandy,.....	1,083,106	1,038,941	1,023,736	1,168,316
Gin,.....	14,596	13,899	14,948	17,069
Sugar, colonial,.....cwts.	3,876,362	4,045,105	4,139,895	*5,216,296
Tallow,.....	1,034,508	1,175,545	1,085,349	*174,602
Beasts,.....No.	10,697	13,306	9,840	1,292
Tea,.....lbs.	37,391,012	40,302,981	41,366,987	4,524,613
Staves,.....No.	70,698	661	314	*3,520
Lumber,.....loads	774,444	1,363,110	1,542,671	913,086
Total duties,.....				£24,421,235

NOTE.—Those duties marked thus, (*) are to be removed, with the exception of sugar, on which the reduction is estimated at $6,000,000.

It is observable that the whole duty is payable by about sixteen articles, which are consumed as food, in the shape, as respects manufacture, in which they are imported. Of these, grain, sugar, coffee, tea, and tobacco, form the chief; paying near £16,000,000 out of the £24,000,000, or two-thirds of the whole revenue. Of each and all of these articles, it may be remarked that the import has been progressive in the last three years. The aggregate of the four articles, excluding grain, imported, has increased 118,788,696 lbs., or 25 per cent; showing a very important progress in the physical condition of the people of England. This improvement in the ability of the masses to consume imported goods, is not confined, by any means, to the British islands; but, if we examine the official returns of the European states, we shall find a similar progress in affairs. For this purpose, we may recur to the customs revenues of the states composing the German commercial league, from its formation, down to the year 1844; and also the population added to the league at different periods, by embracing new states in the union:—

POPULATION AND REVENUE OF THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN.

Years.	Population.	Revenue. *Thalers.*		
1834,.....	23,478,120	14,515,722	or	$10,886,792
1835,.....		16,580,280	or	12,435,110
1836,.....	25,153,629	18,162,874	or	13,622,156
1837,.....		17,697,296	or	13,272,972
1838,.....	25,193,626	20,119,288	or	15,089,466
1839,.....		20,569,488	or	15,427,116
1840,.....		21,306,191	or	15,979,643
1841,.....		21,955,204	or	16,466,403
1842,.....	25,668,878	23,410,563	or	17,557,880
1843,.....		25,365,770	or	19,024,323
1844,.....	25,758,669	26,471,591	or	19,853,794

This is the increase of population through the actual geographical extension of the customs union; and that increase, as compared with the revenue, gives the following proportions:—

	1834.	1844.	Increase.	Inc. per cent.
Population,.....	23,478,120	25,758,669	2,279,549	9½
Revenue,.....	$10,886,792	19,853,794	8,967,002	82½

It will be observed that this is not the actual increase of population of those countries since 1834, but merely the numerical increase of the Zoll-Verein, by adding new states to the Union. The actual population is now 27,711,000. The population of the states which composed the Union in 1834, was 23,478,120. The population of the same states is now 25,534,321—an increase of 2,056,201, or about 9 per cent in ten years; the last enumeration being for 1843. It is observable that this large and increasing population, with their growing prosperity, is every year widening its demand for foreign produce, mostly that of the United States.

The facility of communication from one state to another, since the consolidation of the customs of eighteen separate states (which formerly were each encircled by custom-houses, and all their concomitant delays,) into one, has been accompanied by other facilities to industry, which have contributed to produce the results manifest in the above table. One of the greatest advantages has, doubtless, been the large sums of money drawn from England by the sale of corn, during the period of her short harvests. The application of these funds to manufacturing purposes, has greatly multiplied the exchangeable products within the German circle, and their profitable interchange has given a new impulse to the import of foreign raw materials, and tropical produce. But, perhaps, a still greater stimulant has been experienced in the progress of railroads; which, of late years, have been constructed to the extent of near 2,000 miles, embracing every part of the German empire, and bringing her distant resources within easy access of her most profitable and

extensive markets. Steam-driven cars have been substituted for the slow-moving wagons, and the proverbial industry of Germans is being turned to account by becoming available. In order to form some estimate of the extent to which this cause is operating in ameliorating the condition of the people at large, we append a table of twenty-eight principal roads; showing their length, the number of passengers transported in 1844, the quantity of freight, expressed in centners of 110½ pounds each, and the receipts for the year, as follows:—

TRAFFIC OF GERMAN RAILWAYS, FOR 1844.

	Length. *Miles.*	Passengers. *No.*	Freight. *Cent.*	Receipts.	
Linz-Budweis,	85	15,158	669,329	fl. c. 273,655—	$136,822
Linz-Munden,	46	133,977	884,753	231,800—	115,900
Ferdinand's North Road,	210	664,730	1,940,332	1,663,686—	831,843
Vienna Gloggniz,	50	1,057,636	1,184,644	906,352—	453,176
Murzzuscht-Gratz,	62	.....	.....	.....	.....
Munich-Augsburg,	42	186,378	.....	fl. V. 282,475—	112,990
Nuremberg & Bamberg,	40	70,387	.....	46,648—	18,658
Augsburg,	26	8,314	.....	3,938—	1,574
Nuremberg and Furth,	4	479,416	314	55,402—	22,162
Taunus Road,	28	742,332	.....	431,270—	172,508
Baden "	106	1,450,257	.....	884,679—	353,871
Hamburg and Begedorf,	15	193,436	.....	mh. 102,037—	28,000
Altona and Kiel,	72	95,008	.....	163,540—	45,640
Berlin and Anhalt,	102	352,346	655,710	thl. 674,701—	506,026
" Frankfort,	52	232,557	320,238	300,700—	225,525
" Potsdam,	17	435,619	.....	181,477—	136,108
" Stettin,	90	273,131	748,179	408,899—	306,668
Silesia Road,	53	249,019	.....	152,026—	114,020
Breslau and Freiburg,	43	249,896	296,816	138,951—	104,189
" Liegniz,	45	24,476	3,953	14,884—	11,163
Saxon-Bavarian,	45	217,179	432,575	177,603—	133,200
Leipsic and Dresden,	72	430,197	945,774	608,819—	456,615
" Magdeburg,	80	685,953	1,375,421	690,951—	518,189
Helberstadt and "	38	220,618	399,444	133,222—	99,917
Brunswick Road,	65	462,502	.....	218,397—	183,798
Hanover "	41	135,554	191,827	78,136—	58,602
Dusseldorf & Elderfeldt,	17	284,495	931,711	160,811—	120,609
Rheinish,	57	374,564	2,755,060	539,679—	404,760
Donn. Cologne,	20	537,610	.....	103,042—	77,282
Total,	1,619	10,256,780	.....	.....	$5,749,853

The receipts being given in the currency of the location of the road, as marks courant in Hamburg, convention florins in Austria, and thalers in Prussia, we have reduced the whole to United States currency, as near as may be. The result is the whole trade for 1844. Its increase is seen in the returns for the month of December, as follows:—

	No. of passengers.	Receipts. *Thalers.*	
December, 1843,	512,606	464,663	$348,498
" 1844,	610,943	539,770	404,828
Increase,	98,247	75,107	56,330

When we contemplate the means of communication which subsisted in former years, throughout the ancient empire of Germany—the bad roads, and the creeping wagons, met at every cross-road by the custom-house officer, and his inquisitorial inspections, to guard the revenues of each petty prince and potentate, and reflect that all these have been swept away, and that perfect freedom of intercourse admits steam-cars to connect every important point; and lay open every resource of the empire to the capitalist and the merchant, and that 10,000,000 of people within the year availed themselves of these facilities,

paying for fares and freights near $6,000,000 to the companies, we become aware of the great revolution in progress in the interior of Europe, and that the hourly increasing ability of the people to purchase is producing a corresponding increase of consumption of foreign produce. The rate of consumption is now far behind that of England and the United States, in most leading articles; that of sugar being one. Some years since, the fever of beet-root sugar prevailed to a considerable extent, and the notion was entertained by the German States that sufficient sugar could be raised from that article, on the German soil, to supply the wants of the people. Hence, sugar of that description has entered to a considerable extent into the consumption of the country. The following table gives the quantities of each kind consumed in each of the states last year:—

Consumption of Sugar in the Zoll-Verein, 1844.

	Beet sugar.	Colonial sugar.	Total.	Population.
Prussia,.....	190,566.44	1,022,280.20	1,212,846.64	15,273,582
Bavaria,.....	3,527.03	84,119.80	87,846.03	4,375,586
Saxony,.....	1,280.20	17,694.67	19,174.94	1,706,276
Wurtemburg,.....	4,085.00	5,388.67	9,473.67	1,703,258
Baden,.....	10,924.70	72,976.61	83,901.31	1,294,131
Hesse Cassel,.....	1,195.70	17,454.33	18,650.03	702,598
" Darmstadt,....	.....	234.00	234.00	820,907
Thuringia,.....	2,150.04	29.33	2,179.37	952,214
Brunswick,.....	2,590.37	15,939.33	18,259.70	241,257
Nassau, ...	.....	1.33	1.33	398,095
Frankfort,.....	.....	466.00	464.10	67,873
Luxemburg,.....	.....	586.67	586.67	175,223
Total centners,.	216,319.55	1,237,368.14	1,453,687.69	27,711,000
Total lbs.,.....	24,443,989	139,822,598	164,266,582	.....

The quantity of beets consumed for the manufacture of this amount of beet sugar, was 4,326,391 centners, or 488,882,003 lbs. This manufacture of beet sugar, which, in 1841, was one of importance, has now nearly perished. When the duties of the league were under debate, Bavaria and Wurtemburg objected strongly to the high duty ($3 60 per 113 lbs.) imposed upon foreign sugars, on the ground of its increasing the price to the consumers. It was adopted, however, in consequence of the idea held out of encouraging beet-root sugar. This led to extensive cultivation of the sugar beet, and the establishment of many factories, at great expense; the result of which has been utter loss to those who embarked in it. In 1841, there were in Bavaria ten factories—there are now six. In many of the states of the league, expensive works have been abandoned altogether, although the consumption of sugar has considerably increased. It is, however, still far behind that of Great Britain; where, with nearly the same population, the quantity of sugar consumed is nearly four times as large. The consumption of cotton and rice, which are free of duty, is yet in its infancy in the Zoll-Verein; but, from the impulse which affairs have there received, as well as in the other countries of Europe, it is very evident its future grow must be very extensive, if not rivalling that of Great Britain.

The revulsion of 1836–7 has long since spent itself; and, during the period in which it swept over the commercial world, important events have transpired. Eleven colonies have been added to the possessions of Great Britain; the heretofore sealed empire of China has been opened to the commerce of the world; the gold mines of Russia have swelled their productions immensely; railroads have been stretched over every avenue of commerce in both hemispheres, which have lost half their distance from each other through the power of steam; and the vast cotton fields of Texas have been brought within the circle of the Union. All these events have been compressed into a decade, although each one of them is of sufficient importance of itself to have stamped its impress upon a century. Each and all of these influences are now beginning to exert its power in stimulating trade; and, by giving to labor a better reward, is laying the foundation of a large

increase in the consumption of raw materials and food. The great principle avowed by the British government, is to ameliorate the condition of labor, by allowing it to consume more. Its reward exists not in mere money paid to it, but in the quantity of necessaries and comforts it can command for the laborer. All the elements seem to conspire to carry out this principle. The more the great laboring masses of the whole world can consume, the greater will be the demand for produce. In the last ten years, the cry has been, "over-production"—the fact has been, "under-consumption." The true remedy is, not to produce less, but consume more; and this remedy is now being powerfully applied.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

BRITISH FOREIGN AND COASTING TRADE.

Showing the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade, Irish Trade, and Foreign Trade; and the Number and Tonnage of Foreign Vessels entered inwards from all parts, including their repeated voyages—1801 *to* 1843.

FOREIGN TRADE INWARDS.

Years.	British ships.			Foreign ships.		
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*
1801,.....	4,987	922,594	.....	5,497	780,155	.....
1802,.....	7,806	1,333,005	.....	3,728	480,251	.....
1803,.....	6,264	1,115,702	.....	4,254	638,104	.....
1804,.....	4,865	904,932	.....	4,271	607,299	.....
1805,.....	5,167	953,250	.....	4,517	691,883	.....
1806,.....	5,211	904,367	.....	3,793	612,904	.....
1807,.....	.....	.....	.....	4,087	680,144	.....
1808,.....	.....	.....	.....	1,926	283,657	.....
1809,.....	5,615	938,675	.....	4,922	759,287	.....
1810,.....	5,154	896,001	.....	6,876	1,176,243	.....
1811,.....	.....	.....	.....	3,216	687,180	.....
1812,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1813,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1814,.....	8,975	1,290,248	.....	5,286	599,287	.....
1815,.....	8,880	1,372,108	.....	5,314	746,985	.....
1816,.....	9,744	1,415,723	99,119	3,116	379,465	.....
1817,.....	11,255	1,625,121	97,273	3,396	445,011	.....
1818,.....	13,006	1,886,394	111,880	6,238	762,457	.....
1819,.....	11,794	1,809,128	107,556	4,215	542,684	.....
1820,.....	11,285	1,668,060	100,325	3,472	447,611	.....
1821,.....	10,810	1,599,274	97,485	3,261	396,256	.....
1822,.....	11,087	1,664,186	98,980	3,389	469,151	.....
1823,.....	11,271	1,740,859	112,244	4,069	582,996	.....
1824,.....	11,733	1,797,320	108,686	5,653	759,441	.....
1825,.....	13,516	2,144,598	123,028	6,968	958,132	.....
1826,.....	12,473	1,950,630	113,093	5,729	694,116	.....
1827,.....	13,133	2,086,898	118,686	6,046	751,864	.....
1828,.....	13,436	2,094,357	119,141	4,955	634,620	.....
1829,.....	13,659	2,184,535	122,185	5,218	710,303	39,342
1830,.....	13,548	2,180,042	122,103	5,359	758,828	41,870
1831,.....	14,488	2,367,322	131,627	6,085	874,605	.....
1832,.....	13,372	2,185,980	122,594	4,546	639,979	.....
1833, ...	13,119	2,185,814	.....	5,505	762,086	.....
1834,.....	13,903	2,298,263	.....	5,898	833,905	.....
1835,.....	14,295	2,442,734	.....	6,005	866,990	.....
1836,.....	14,347	2,505,473	.....	7,131	988,899	.....
1837,.....	15,155	2,616,166	146,319	7,343	1,005,940	56,778
1838,.....	16,119	2,785,387	154,499	8,679	1,211,666	68,891
1839,.....	17,635	3,101,650	170,339	10,326	1,331,365	79,550
1840,.....	17,883	3,197,501	172,404	10,198	1,460,294	81,295
1841,.....	18,525	3,361,211	178,696	9,527	1,291,165	73,634
1842,.....	19,980	2,332,502	.....	8,392	1,225,949	.....
1843,.....	20,450	3,594,650	.....	8,837	1,324,808	.....

COASTING AND IRISH TRADE INWARDS, INCLUDING THEIR REPEATED VOYAGES.

Years.	Coasting.		Irish Trade.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1801,.....	*.....	.....	5,360	456,026
1802,.....	*.....	.....	5,820	461,328
1803,.....	*.....	.....	5,796	504,884
1804,.....	*.....	.....	5,643	490,455
1805,.....	*.....	.....	6,306	566,790
1806,.....	*.....	.....	6,907	578,297
1807,.....	*.....	.....	No returns.	.....
1808,.....	*.....	.....	8,477	768,264
1809,.....	*.....	.....	7,041	600,898
1810,.....	*.....	.....	8,403	713,087
1811,.....	*.....	.....	9,014	789,097
1812,.....	*.....	.....	10,812	925,736
1813,.....	*.....	.....	8,569	718,851
1814,.....	*.....	.....	7,562	613,898
1815,.....	*.....	.....	8,462	680,333
1816,.....	*.....	.....	7,575	621,272
1817,.....	*.....	.....	9,186	770,547
1818,.....	*.....	.....	7,969	644,896
1819,.....	*.....	.....	8,575	699,885
1820,.....	*.....	.....	9,229	783,750
1821,.....	*.....	.....	9,440	819,648
1822,.....	*.....	.....	9,562	822,927
1823,.....	110,566	7,899,603	9,382	786,637
1824,.....	†113,033	8,101,337		
	127,365	9,167,573	7,534	615,396
1825,.....	†113,206	8,300,756		
	127,722	9,392,965	8,922	741,182
1826,.....	†111,324	8,368,812		
	125,720	9,503,554	6,388	632,972
1827,.....	.....	8,186,604	7,411	737,752
1828,.....	.....	8,911,109	8,790	923,505
1829,.....	.....	8,933,633	8,922	906,158
1830,.....	119,488	9,240,140	8,455	880,965
1831,.....	118,849	9,279,308	9,029	921,128
1832,.....	119,283	9,419,681	9,705	1,026,613
1833,.....	116,866	9,400,336	9,476	1,041,882
1834,.....	122,440	9,874,715	10,026	1,100,389
1835,.....	121,329	10,188,916	10,116	1,138,147
1836,.....	123,795	10,337,545	9,820	1,179,062
1837,.....	128,011	10,409,370	10,299	1,202,104
1838,.....	128,171	10,491,752	10,312	1,264,975
1839,.....	130,254	10,610,404	9,221	1,176,893
1840,.....	133,299	10,776,056	9,423	1,150,393
1841,.....	131,321	10,869,071	9,924	1,196,385
1842,.....	127,840	10,785,450	9,060	1,148,887
1843,.....	133,824	10,260,771	.....	.....

BUSINESS OF LITTLE FORT, ILLINOIS.

In the first number of the Banner, a new weekly paper commenced at Little Fort, we find several items in regard to its location, business, and present state of the market. The village is situated forty-five miles north from Chicago, nine and a half miles south of the north line of the state, and sixteen miles south of Southport, W. T. On the 19th of August, 1842, Little Fort had 85 inhabitants; on the 1st of March last, 452. But the position which this place now sustains in the public eye must necessarily tend to a rapid increase of population. There is nearly one-half a section of land laid out into town

* No returns of coasting trade previous to 1823.

† Coasting trade marked (†) 1823–4–5–6, from Huskisson's speech, 7th May, 1827.

lots, a large portion of which is already sold and improved. A substantial court-house, and sixty other new buildings, have been erected during the past year, together with a large warehouse near the pier. The imports and exports for the past season are appended. Arrivals of steam and other craft, 151.

Imports.		Exports.	
Merchandise,.....tons	1,011	Wheat,.....bush.	66,000
Lumber,.....M. feet	883	Oats,.....	200
Shingles and bolts,.....	447	Hides,.....lbs.	8,000
Salt,.....bbls.	758	Furs and skins,.....	2,000
Flour,.....	650	Pork,.....bbls.	15
Pork and beef,.....	145	Wood,.....cords	1,300

NEW LONDON WHALE FISHERY, FOR LAST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

The New London Advocate furnishes the following statement of vessels, and produce of the whale fishery, at that port, from 1820, (the time of its commencement in New London,) till 1844, inclusive:—

Years.	Ships, &c.	Whale.	Sperm.	Years.	Ships, &c.	Whale.	Sperm.
1844,.....	22	39,816	2,296	1831,.....	14	19,402	6,487
1843,.....	20	34,677	3,598	1830,.....	14	15,248	9,792
1842,.....	21	28,165	4,055	1829,.....	9	11,325	2,205
1841,.....	18	26,893	3,920	1828,.....	3	5,435	168
1840,.....	20	32,038	4,110	1827,.....	5	3,375	6,156
1839,.....	18	26,274	4,105	1826,.....	2	2,804	88
1838,.....	18	24,953	3,301	1825,.....	4	5,483	2,276
1837,.....	18	26,774	8,469	1824,.....	5	4,996	1,924
1836,.....	13	18,663	3,198	1823,.....	6	6,712	2,318
1835,.....	17	16,397	12,189	1822,.....	5	4,528	194
1834,.....	10	12,549	4,565	1821,.....	3	2,323	105
1833,.....	17	22,395	8,503	1820,.....	3	1,731	78
1832,.....	12	21,375	703				

It will be seen that the imports for the past year (whale and sperm) have exceeded that of any previous year 3,837 bbls.

WHALE FISHERY OF SAG HARBOR, IN 1844.

We are indebted to the politeness of our esteemed friend, Luther D. Cook, of Sag Harbor, for the following tabular statements of the whale fishery for that district, during the year 1844. Mr. Cook has been for a long time interested in this branch of commercial enterprise, and is a very accurate gatherer of the statistics of the whale fishery, for the Sag Harbor district. We should be glad if some gentlemen residing at the different ports would oblige us with similar annual statements.

List of Arrivals

Of Whaling Vessels, with the amount of the produce of the Fishery, within the District of Sag Harbor, (N. Y.,) during the year 1844.

Time of arr. 1844.	Name.	Tons.	Absent. Mo.	Absent. Da.	Master.	Bbls. Sp. oil.	Bbls. Wh. oil.	Lbs. bone.
March 18	—Arabella,*.....	367	29	23	H. Babcock.	414	2,248	20,258
April 9	—Franklin,†.....	391	32	27	J. Halsey.	193	2,922	28,391
" 14	—Portland,*.....	292	20	11	W. H. Payne.	29	2,454	22,850
" 14	—Hudson,*.....	368	18	2	H. Nickerson, jr.	00	2,369	21,840
" 19	—Roanoke,†.....	251	19	18	N. Case.	94	1,720	15,417
" 25	—Timor,*.....	289	18	23	A. Eldredge.	38½	2,466	26,098
May 19	—Alciope,*.....	378	20	8	B. C. Payne.	152	2,419	20,776
" 24	—Hamilton 1st,*...	322	22	23	I. Ludlow.	341	2,022	17,739
June 8	—Wiscasset,*.....	380	30	2	S. P. Smith.	240	2,736	27,000

* Ships. † Barques.

June 18—Thos. Dickason,*	454	35	4	W. S. Havens.	44	4,334	37,900
" 24—Acasta,†.....	286	21	25	J. M. Havens.	58	1,401	13,600
" 24—Sarah & Esther,†	157	12	8	D. B. Harlow.	00	842	7,500
July 11—Ontario 1st,*.....	368	24	10	J. M. Green.	78	2,993	23,000
" 13—Barbara,†.....	260	10	16	E. H. Howes.	126	1,053	7,607
" 18—Washington,*.....	236	12	00	E. P. Brown.	00	1,392	10,185
" 28—Phœnix,*.....	314	23	28	S. P. Briggs.	00	2,518	16,920
" 28—Nimrod,†.....	280	11	1	A. Rogers.	189½	309	1,220
17 arrivals in 1844.	5,393 tons.				1,997	36,198	317,601
34 departures from the district, in 1844,.....tons							11,707
37 vessels sailed from the district in 1842 and 1843, and now out,.....							13,040
71, total number of vessels.....tons							24,747

LIST OF VESSELS

Engaged in the Whale Fishery, sailed from the District of Sag Harbor, (N. Y.,) in 1844.

Time al'g. 1844.	Name.	Tons.	Master.	Destination.	Managing owners & ag'nts.
May 2	Silas Richards,*	454	Richard Dering.	N. W. C.	Mulford & Sleight.
" 13	Philip 1st,†.....	293	J. S. Case.	"	Wells, Carpenter & Ireland.
" 23	Panama,*.....	465	T. E. Crowell.	"	N. & G. Howell.
" 28	Arabella,*.....	367	H. Babcock.	"	N. & G. Howell.
" 28	Ohio,*.....	297	T. Lowen.	"	Post & Sherry.
June 1	Portland,*.....	292	J. Wade, jr.	"	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
" 4	Niantic,*.....	451	S. H. Slate.	"	Charles P. Dering.
" 5	Franklin,†.....	391	E. Halsey.	"	Huntting Cooper.
" 6	Gentleman,†.....	227	W. L. Payne.	C. I.	Ira B. Tuthill.
" 24	Sabina,*.....	416	D. P. Vail.	N. W. C.	Charles P. Dering.
July 1	Timor,*.....	289	N. Edwards.	"	Huntting Cooper.
" 8	Hudson,*.....	368	H. Nickerson, jr.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 22	Hamilton 1st,*...	322	J. Babcock.	I. O.	Charles P. Dering.
" 22	Alciope,*.....	377	J. Halsey.	N. W. C.	Post & Sherry.
" 29	St. Lawrence,*...	523	E. M. Baker.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 29	Roanoke,†.....	251	S. Baldwin.	"	Wiggins & Parsons.
" 30	John Wells,*....	366	J. W. Hedges.	"	Thomas Brown.
Aug. 12	Thos. Dickason,*	454	W. Lowen.	"	Mulford & Sleight.
" 17	Sarah & Esther,†	157	S. Griffing.	S. A. O.	Ireland, Wells & Carpenter.
" 23	Acasta,†.....	286	D. B. Harlow.	N. W. C.	John Budd.
" 29	Ontario 1st,*.....	368	J. M. Green.	"	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
" 30	Barbara,†.....	260	H. French.	S. A. O.	Charles P. Dering.
" 31	Nimrod,†.....	280	W. F. Fowler.	"	Charles P. Dering.
" 31	Washington,†....	236	G. W. Corwin.	I. O.	Wiggins & Parsons.
Sept. 4	Neva,*.....	363	N. Case.	N. W. C.	Ireland, Wells & Carpenter.
" 18	Martha,*.....	359	D. R. Drake.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 19	Levant,*.....	382	J. M. Havens.	"	Nathan N. Tiffany.
" 19	Noble 2d,†.....	273	W. B. Howes.	S. A. O.	Charles P. Dering.
" 28	Wiscasset,*.....	380	W. H. Payne.	N. W. C.	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
Oct. 5	Italy,*.....	298	F. Weld.	"	David G. Floyd.
" 10	Phœnix,*.....	314	S. P. Briggs.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 14	Salem,*.....	470	D. Hand.	"	Mulford & Sleight.
" 31	Oscar,†.....	369	I. Ludlow.	"	Huntting Cooper.
Nov. 7	Lucy Ann.*.....	309	E. P. Brown.	"	Wiggins, Parsons & Cooke.

34 departures in 1844. 11,707

LIST OF VESSELS

Engaged in the Whale Fishery, from the District of Sag Harbor, which have not returned during the past year, and are now at sea, January 1, 1845.

Time al'g. 1842.	Name.	Tons.	Master.	Destination.	Managing owners & ag'nts.
Sept. 2	Henry Lee,*.....	409	L. L. Bennet.	N. W. C.	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
Oct. 7	John Jay,*.....	494	W. J. Rogers.	"	N. & G. Howell.
" 7	Tuscany,*.....	299	J. Godby.	"	John Budd.

* Ships. † Barques.

Nov. 25—Ann Mary Ann,*	380	J. Winters.	"	Mulford & Sleight.
1843.				
Mar. 25—Caroline,†.....	252	J. Rose.	S. A. O.	Wiggins & Parsons.
April 21—Citizen,*.....	464	D. F. Lansing.	N. W. C.	Mulford & Sleight.
June 10—Neptune,*.....	338	W. Pierson.	"	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
" 19—Washington,*....	340	N. C. Sandford.	"	Huntting Cooper.
" 20—Columbia,†.....	285	L. B. Edwards.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 29—Concordia,†.....	265	E. Cartwright.	I. O.	Thomas Brown.
July 5—Henry,*.....	333	G. B. Brown.	N. W. C.	Samuel L'Hommedieu.
" 7—Ann,*.....	299	S. C. Leek.	"	Mulford & Howell.
" 7—Thames,*.....	414	J. R. Bishop.	"	Thomas Brown.
" 20—Noble,†.....	274	D. Sweeny.	"	Ira B. Tuthill.
" 21—France,*.....	411	S. W. Edwards.	"	N. & G. Howell.
" 24—Superior,†.....	275	J. Bishop, jr.	"	Post & Sherry.
Aug. 11—Triad,*.....	336	I. M. Case.	"	Corwins & Howell.
" 17—Daniel Webster,*	397	E. H. Curry.	"	Mulford & Howell.
" 17—Delta,*.....	314	D. Weeks.	N. H.	Corwins & Howell.
" 24—Cadmus,*.....	307	D. Smith, jr.	I. O.	Mulford & Sleight.
" 28—Hamilton 2d,*...	455	D. Loper.	N. W. C.	Mulford & Sleight.
" 30—Hannibal,*.....	311	J. Canning.	"	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
" 31—Marcus,*.....	283	S. L. Sherman.	S. A. O.	N. & G. Howell.
" 31—Ontario 2d,*.....	489	B. R. Green.	N. W. C.	Post & Sherry.
Sept. 16—Alexander,*.....	370	W. A. Jones.	"	William A. Jones.
" 16—Gem,†.....	326	T. B. Worth.	"	Huntting Cooper.
" 18—American,†.....	283	J. Havens.	"	S. & B. Huntting & Co.
" 21—Huron,*.....	290	W. A. Green.	"	L. D. Cook and H. Green.
" 27—Bayard,†.....	339	J. N. Fordham.	"	Corwins & Howell.
" 28—Romulus,†.....	233	J. Rogers.	I. O.	Mulford & Howell.
Oct. 4—William Tell,*...	370	B. Glover, jr.	N. H.	Thomas Brown.
" 11—Crescent,*.....	340	S. Miller.	N. W. C.	Post & Sherry.
" 18—Helen,*.....	424	M. P. Cartwright.	"	Charles P. Dering.
" 25—Illinois,*.....	463	D. Jagger.	"	John Budd.
" 30—Josephine,*.....	397	Thomas W. Roys.	"	Post & Sherry.
Nov. 8—Manhattan,*.....	440	M. Cooper.	"	John Budd.
Dec. 4—Fanny,*.....	391	H. H. Edwards.	"	N. & G. Howell.
37 vessels sailed in 1842 and 1843.	13,040		* Ships.	† Barques.

BALTIC TRADE.

Showing the Number of Vessels which passed the Sound, distinguishing British from Foreign, and the proportion of British to Foreign Ships. Also, the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels lost in the Baltic.

	Vessels passed the Sound.				Lost in the Baltic.		
Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	Prop. of British to tot. ship'ng.	Ships.	Tons.	Total Br. trade.
1826,.....	3,730	7,335	11,065	0.337	.....	.....	.....
1827,.....	5,099	7,901	13,000	0.392	.....	.....	.....
1828,.....	4,426	8,821	13,247	0.334	.....	.....	.....
1829,.....	4,791	8,685	13,476	0.355	.....	.....	.....
1830,.....	4,274	8,938	13,212	0.323	.....	.....	.....
1831,.....	4,772	8,174	12,946	0.442	33	6,334	866,684
1832,.....	3,330	8,872	12,202	0.324	14	2,897	592,833
1833,.....	3,192	7,793	10,985	0.351	16	3,570	590,859
1834,.....	2,756	7,849	10,605	0.314	18	3,687	519,846
1835,.....	2,472	7,783	10,255	0.295	12	2,760	470,727
1836,.....	3,188	8,728	11,916	0.322	23	5,668	605,889
1837,.....	3,417	9,685	13,102	0.323	23	3,812	655,447
1838,.....	4,009	9,951	13,960	0.348	13	3,043	756,470
1839,.....	4,498	11,677	16,175	0.342	14	2,998	840,971
1840,.....	4,071	11,591	15,662	0.305	7	2,025	733,139
1841,.....	3,777	10,958	14,735	0.297	23	5,389	671,652
1842,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

STEAMBOAT, RAILROAD, AND CANAL STATISTICS.

MADISON AND INDIANAPOLIS RAILROAD.

The following extract from the report of a committee appointed by the directors, exhibits the history and condition of the road, its income and business, and future prospects, very satisfactorily:—

The Madison and Indianapolis railroad was one of the works embraced in the general system of internal improvements adopted by the state, in the year 1836. It was then located from Madison to Columbus, 45 miles; and afterwards to Edinburgh, 11 miles further. The expenditures of the state on the road, between the years 1836 and 1842, were $1,624,291 93; of which $62,493 21 were received from tolls, and the balance from the state treasury.

The legislature of 1842, finding the public works unprofitable and expensive, with no funds to complete them, and dull prospects from them if completed, passed the act providing for their extension by private companies, as herein, under which this association has been organized. By virtue of its provisions, about $80,000, mostly in land, at cash prices, was subscribed as stock, in April and May, 1842. In June, directors were chosen, and the board organized—in July, the first thirteen miles north of Griffith's were put under contract; and, soon after, the next four, to Columbus. The road was completed, June 1, 1843, three miles, to Scipio; September 1, seven miles further, to Elizabethtown; February 1, 1844, four and a half miles, to Clifty; and July 3, two and a half miles further, to Columbus.

The company took possession of the road on the 20th February, 1843; from which, until the 3d February, 1844, the receipts from tolls were $22,110 33; of which $5,918 92 were paid for expenses of transportation, $3,342 28 for repairs of road, $2,641 44 for repairs of machinery, $119 88 for contingencies, and the balance, $8,638 70, was profits applied to the construction of the road, and added to the capital stock. The receipts in 1843–44, have been as follows:—

February 20, 1843, to March 31,			$1,551 98	January,	1844,		3,499 66
April,	"		1,449 53	March,	"		3,109 96
May,	"		1,256 84	April,	"		2,477 36
June,	"		1,221 58	May,	"		3,055 78
July,	"		1,304 82	June,	"		2,278 36
August,	"		1,205 62	July,	"		2,173 09
September,	"		1,444 87	August,	"		2,772 20
October,	"		2,183 27	September 28,	"		2,854 80
November,	"		3,083 89	October,	"		3,309 84
December,	"		3,868 09	November,	"		4,554 67

The ordinary expenses of the road, for each working day, have been, for some time, about $36; and, when two engines are run, $10 more. For the success which has heretofore attended the association, much credit is due to N. B. Palmer, Esq., late president and superintendent, who voluntarily retired from those stations on 1st of July last.

STEAM BETWEEN NEW YORK AND LIVERPOOL.

The Great Western Steam-ship Company's steam-ship Great Western, Capt. Mathews, and their new iron steam-ship Great Britain, Capt. Hoaken, are appointed to sail during the year 1845, as follows:—

From Liverpool.			From New York.		
Great Western,	Saturday,	29th March.	Great Western,	Thursday,	24th April.
Great Western,	"	17th May.	Great Western,	"	12th June.
Great Western,	"	5th July.	Great Western,	"	31st July.
Great Britain,	"	2d August.	Great Britain,	Saturday,	30th August.
Great Western,	"	23d August.	Great Western,	Thursday,	18th Sept.
Great Britain,	"	27th Sept.	Great Britain,	Saturday,	25th Oct.
Great Western,	"	11th Oct.	Great Western,	Thursday,	6th Nov.
Great Britain,	"	22d Nov.	Great Britain,	Saturday,	20th Dec.

PASSAGES OF THE GREAT WESTERN.

The following details of the seventy passages of the Great Western across the Atlantic, form an interesting record connected with the rise and progress of steam navigation :—

FROM BRISTOL OR LIVERPOOL, TO NEW YORK, VIZ: FROM KING-ROAD, OR THE DOCKS, TO THE WHARF—TIME BY THE CHRONOMETER.

Sailed.	Arrived.	Time. D.	Time. H.	Yearly average. D.	Yearly average. H.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pass'n-gers.	Yearly av'age.
1838.	1838.							
April 8.....	April 23.....	15	10			3,111	7	
June 2.....	June 17.....	14	16			3,140	57	
July 21.....	August 5.....	14	18			3,043	131	
September 8.....	September 24.....	16	9			3,050	143	
October 27.....	November 15.....	19	0			3,100	107	
				16	1½	—	—	89
1839.	1839.							
January 28.....	February 16.....	18	20			3,114	104	
March 23.....	April 14.....	22	6			3,350	110	
May 18.....	May 31.....	13	12			3,086	107	
July 6.....	July 22.....	16	0			3,030	114	
August 24.....	September 10.....	16	20			3,025	113	
October 19.....	November 2.....	14	22			3,021	137	
				17	1½	—	—	114.1
1840.	1840.							
February 20.....	March 7.....	15	17			3,058	77	
April 15.....	May 3.....	17	20			3,093	100	
June 4.....	June 18.....	14	18			3,073	85	
July 25.....	August 9.....	14	23			3,018	97	
September 12.....	September 27.....	15	7			3,049	54	
November 7.....	November 24.....	16	12			3,025	40	
				15	20	—	—	75.3
1841.	1841.							
April 8.....	April 23.....	15	12 to anchor outside.			3,096	44	
May 27.....	June 10.....	14	12			3,033	42	
July 14.....	July 29.....	15	2			3,014	98	
September 1.....	September 16.....	15	10			3,036	111	
October 23, 1.15, P. M....	Nov'r 8, midnight.....	16	12			3,035	127	
				15	9½	—	—	84.2
1842.	1842.							
Ap. 2, 1.30, P. M.	April 17, noon....	15	4			3,093	69	
May 21, 5, P. M.	June 4, 2.25, P. M.	14	2½			3,020	64	
July 16, 1, P. M..	July 30.....	14	1½			3,028	65	
Sept. 3, 5, P. M...	Sept. 17, 10, P. M.	14	10			3,020	97	
Oct. 22, 3, P. M..	Nov. 6, 6½ P. M....	15	8			3,036	109	
				14	15	—	—	80.4
1843.	1843.							
April 29.....	May 11, midnight.	12	18			3,068	60	
June 17.....	July 1.....	13	16			3,027	67	
August 5.....	August 21.....	15	16			3,025	124	
September 23....	October 7.....	14	4			3,020	136	
				14	1½	—	—	96.3
1844.	1844.							
June 22, 3.15 P. M.	July 6, midnight..	14	20			2,890	33	
Aug. 17, 12.45 P. M.....	August 31, 6, P. M.	14	5			2,966	135	
Oct. 12, 11 A. M.	Oct. 26, 9.30, P. M.	14	10			2,934	139	
				14	12	—	—	102
34 voyages.....		527	10				3,113	
Average.....				15	12		91	

FROM BRISTOL TO MADEIRA AND NEW YORK.

Sailed. 1843.	Arrived. 1843.	Time. D.	H.		Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pas-sen-gers.
February 11.....	March 12.....	29	1	1 day 4 hrs. at Madeira.	4,698	52

FROM NEW YORK TO BRISTOL OR LIVERPOOL, VIZ: FROM THE WHARF TO KING-ROAD, OR THE DOCKS—TIME BY THE CHRONOMETER.

Sailed. 1838.	Arrived. 1838.	Time. D.	H.	Yearly average.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pass'n-gers.	Yearly av'age.
May 7.....	May 22.....	14	0		3,218	66	
June 25.....	July 8.....	12	14		3,099	91	
August 16.....	August 30.....	13	2		3,058	87	
October 4.....	October 16.....	12	12		3,068	127	
November 23....	December 7.....	13	16		3,152	80	
				13 4			90.1
1839.	1839.						
February 25.....	March 12.....	14	12		3,133	36	
April 22.....	May 7.....	15	0		3,332	113	
June 13.....	June 26.....	13	6		3,033	115	
August 1.....	Aug. 13, 4.30 A. M.	12	10½		3,067	64	
September 21....	October 4.....	13	0		3,034	43	
November 16....	November 30.....	13	10		3,038	31	
				13 17			67.
1840.	1840.						
March 19.....	April 2.....	14	4		3,101	52	
May 9.....	May 23.....	14	2		3,076	137	
July 1.....	July 14.....	13	12		3,138	152	
August 18.....	August 31.....	13	1		3,030	69	
October 10.....	October 23.....	13	6		3,028	97	
December 9.....	December 23.....	14	9		3,071	70	
				13 21			96.1
1841.	1841.						
May 1.....	May 14, 7.30 P. M.	13	1		3,208	94	
June 19.....	July 3.....	14	2		3,109	81	
August 7.....	August 20.....	12	10		3,081	68	
September 25....	October 8.....	12	13		3,063	43	
November 23....	December 6.....	13	5		3,049	30	
				13 1½			62.4
1842.	1842.						
April 28.....	May 11, 4 A. M. 1 h.	12 to light vessel.	7½		3,248	77	
June 16, 2.30 P. M.	June 29, 7.30 A. M.	12	12		3,225	99	
Aug. 11, 2.15 P. M.	Aug. 24, 2 P. M....	12	19		3,106	70	
Sept. 29, 2 P. M..	Oct. 12, 11 P. M....	13	4		3,048	35	
November 17....	Nov. 30, 10 P. M..	12	15		3,077	29	
				12 16			62.
1843.	1843.						
May 25.....	June 8.....	13	8		3,116	126	
July 13.....	July 26.....	12	21		3,106	104	
August 31.....	September 14.....	13	8		3,090	73	
October 19.....	November 1.....	12	17		3,069	99	
				13 1½			100.2
1844.	1844.						
July 20, 3.15 P. M.	Aug. 4, 12 noon..	14	20		2,891	66	
Sept. 14, 3.15 P. M.	Sep. 29, 12 midn't.	15	8		3,231	30	
Nov. 9, 2.30 P. M.	Nov. 23, 11.45 A. M.	13	21		2,791	31	
				14 8			42.
34 voyages.....		454	19			2,585	
Average.....				13 9		76	

FROM NEW YORK TO LIVERPOOL.

Sailed.	Arrived.	Time. D.	Time. H.	Dis. run in naut. miles.	Pas-seng'rs.
1843.	1843.				
March 16.....	April 1.....	15	11	3,140	24

Total distance run, including passages to London, Milford, and Liverpool, 256,000 statute miles; and the average speed outward, 9¼ miles per hour; homeward, 11¼ miles.

OPENING AND CLOSING OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The following table shows the date of opening and closing the canals, and the number of days of navigation in each year, from 1824 to the present:—

Years.	Navigation opened.	Navigation closed.	No. ds. of nav.	Years.	Navigation opened.	Navigation closed.	No. ds. of nav.
1824,.....	April 30	Dec. 4	219	1835,....	April 15	Nov. 30	230
1825,.....	" 12	" 5	238	1836,....	" 25	" 26	216
1826,.....	" 20	" 18	243	1837,....	" 20	Dec. 9	234
1827,.....	" 22	" 18	241	1838,....	" 12	Nov. 25	228
1828,.....	Mar. 27	" 20	269	1839,....	" 20	Dec. 16	241
1829,.....	May 2	" 17	210	1840,....	" 20	" 3	228
1830,.....	April 20	" 17	242	1841,....	" 32	Nov. 30	221
1831,.....	" 16	" 1	230	1842,....	" 20	" 28	222
1832,.....	" 25	" 21	241	1843,....	May 1	" 30	214
1833,.....	" 19	" 12	238	1844,....	April 15	" 26	223
1834,.....	" 17	" 12	240	1845,....	" 15	" ...	.....

STATISTICS OF BRITISH STEAM NAVIGATION.

The following table, compiled from official documents, shows the number and tonnage of steam vessels belonging to England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the total number and tonnage belonging to the United Kingdom in each year, from 1814 to 1843, inclusive:—

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		U. Kingdom.	
Years.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1814,...	....	.....	1	69	...	.....	1	69
1815,...	3	209	5	429	...	.....	8	638
1816,...	5	315	7	632	...	.....	12	947
1817,...	7	462	6	514	1	63	14	1,039
1818,...	10	1,586	8	683	1	63	19	2,332
1819,...	11	1,459	11	825	2	264	24	2,548
1820,...	17	1,639	14	1,127	3	252	34	3,018
1821,...	29	3,377	26	3,344	4	330	59	6,051
1822,...	52	5,322	28	2,701	5	434	85	8,457
1823,...	69	7,527	26	2,347	6	487	101	10,361
1824,...	80	8,642	29	2,682	5	409	114	11,733
1825,...	112	12,280	36	3,292	3	192	151	15,764
1826,...	162	16,791	51	4,496	15	2,899	228	24,186
1827,...	173	17,734	59	5,390	21	4,194	253	27,318
1828,...	191	18,367	56	4,903	25	4,740	272	28,010
1829,...	203	19,085	57	5,399	27	5,017	287	29,501
1830,...	203	18,831	61	5,687	31	5,491	295	30,009
1831,...	223	20,304	62	5,777	35	6,181	320	32,262
1832,...	235	20,813	73	7,205	40	7,220	348	35,238
1833,...	268	23,290	71	7,075	43	7,757	382	38,122
1834,...	301	27,059	77	8,187	46	8,183	424	43,429
1835,...	344	30,351	85	9,833	68	12,583	497	52,767
1836,...	388	34,314	95	11,588	71	13,460	554	59,362
1837,...	422	37,240	109	13,368	87	18,437	618	69,045
1838,...	484	43,877	105	13,113	84	17,694	673	74,684
1839,...	517	45,160	117	15,704	86	18,376	720	79,240
1840,...	560	50,491	129	19,497	79	17,551	768	87,539
1841,...	585	59,040	126	19,133	79	17,505	790	95,678
1842,...	615	69,699	133	19,925	79	18,303	827	107,927
1843,...	646	72,042	128	19,422	81	17,894	855	109,398

Number and Tonnage of British Steam Vessels built and registered in each year, from 1814 to 1843.

Years.	England. Vessels.	England. Tonnage.	Scotland. Vessels.	Scotland. Ton'ge.	Ireland. Vessels.	Ireland. Tonnage.	U. Kingdom. Vessels.	U. Kingdom. Tonnage.
1814,...	.....	.....	5	285	.....	.....	5	285
1815,...	2	161	7	625	.....	.....	9	786
1816,...	4	298	4	270	.....	.....	8	568
1817,...	4	227	3	194	.....	.....	7	421
1818,...	3	1,124	3	216	.....	.....	6	1,340
1819,...	2	175	2	167	.....	.....	4	342
1820,...	3	102	4	403	1	150	8	655
1821,...	12	1,463	10	1,545	.....	.....	22	3,008
1822,...	23	2,080	4	369	.....	.....	27	2,449
1823,...	17	2,344	2	125	.....	.....	19	2,469
1824,...	12	1,687	5	547	.....	.....	17	2,234
1825,...	19	2,600	5	403	.....	.....	24	3,003
1826,...	50	5,920	22	2,718	.....	.....	72	8,638
1827,...	18	2,264	9	994	1	118	28	3,376
1828,...	25	1,687	5	352	.....	.....	30	2,039
1829,...	13	1,080	3	671	.....	.....	16	1,751
1830,...	10	931	8	814	.....	.....	18	1,745
1831,...	24	2,054	7	695	.....	.....	31	2,749
1832,...	19	943	14	1,908	.....	.....	33	2,851
1833,...	27	1,964	6	964	.....	.....	33	2,928
1834,...	26	3,453	10	1,675	.....	.....	36	5,128
1835,...	63	6,844	23	4,080	.....	.....	86	10,924
1836,...	43	5,924	20	2,834	.....	.....	63	8,758
1837,...	53	6,223	22	4,488	3	958	78	11,669
1838,...	66	6,286	18	3,263	.....	.....	84	9,549
1839,...	43	2,885	18	2,968	1	286	62	6,139
1840,...	59	6,186	16	4,110	.....	.....	75	10,296
1841,...	38	3,158	9	7,683	1	342	48	11,363
1842,...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	58	13,716
1843,...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	6,063

Showing the Number and Tonnage of Steam Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade and Foreign Trade, entered inwards from all parts, distinguishing British from Foreign ships, including their repeated voyages.

Years.	British Steam Vessels Inwards. Coastwise. Ships.	Coastwise. Tons.	Foreign. Ships.	Foreign. Tons.	Foreign. Inwards. Ships.	Foreign. Inwards. Tons.
1820,.....	9	505	.....	.....	.....	.....
1821,.....	188	20,028	.....	.....	.....	.....
1822,.....	215	31,596	159	14,497	10	520
1823,.....	434	55,146	129	8,942	7	364
1824,.....	888	124,073	139	10,893	6	312
1825,.....	1,666	257,734	186	16,155	11	652
1826,.....	2,810	452,995	334	32,631	38	2,906
1827,.....	4,404	737,020	443	50,285	74	4,558
1828,.....	5,591	914,414	482	52,679	58	3,406
1829,.....	5,792	978,981	497	51,754	3	405
1830,.....	6,796	1,073,506	560	62,613	42	7,781
1831,.....	7,072	1,161,012	537	65,946	85	11,345
1832,.....	7,769	1,256,805	587	71,493	74	7,000
1833,.....	9,070	1,513,684	681	98,224	51	3,708
1834,.....	10,046	1,609,324	988	146,720	12	3,164
1835,.....	11,297	1,849,409	1,015	170,151	18	5,058
1836,.....	13,003	2,238,137	1,122	195,722	50	10,948
1837,.....	15,481	2,671,577	1,123	217,640	60	12,504
1838,.....	17,771	2,959,125	1,983	286,264	441	54,401
1839,.....	15,556	2,926,521	2,293	356,595	511	70,773
1840,.....	15,464	2,913,505	2,057	321,651	471	1,626
1841,.....	15,136	2,903,784	2,182	360,675	478	55,832
1842,.....	15,115	2,961,970	2,113	330,038	492	69,426
1843,.....	14,633	3,001,431	2,439	379,909	533	77,225

Showing the Number of Steam Vessels employed in the Coasting and Foreign Trade, (including their repeated voyages,) and of the proportion per cent of the Coasting and Foreign Trade performed by Steam Vessels, at intervals of three years, commencing 1821, and the Number of Foreign Steam Vessels employed, and the proportion per cent of the Foreign Trade performed by them.

	British Steam Vessels.				For'gn S. Vessels.	
Years.	Coastwise. *Ships.*	Prop. per ct. *Ships.*	Foreign. *Ships.*	Prop. per ct. *Ships.*	*Ships.*	Prop. per ct. *Ships.*
1821,.....	188	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1824,.....	888	.697	139	1.188	6	.107
1827,.....	4,404	.....	443	3.373	74	1.223
1830,.....	6,796	5.691	560	4.133	42	.783
1833,.....	9,070	7.765	681	5.190	51	.926
1836,.....	12,988	10.499	1,122	7.820	50	.701
1839,.....	15,556	11.947	2,293	13.002	511	4.948
1842,.....	15,115	11.827	2,113	10.575	492	5.826
1843,.....	14,633	10.934	2,439	11.437	533	6.031

Note.—The great apparent increase in the number of foreign steam vessels, is from the number of passage vessels. For example, there arrived, during the year 1841, 478 foreign steamers entered inwards, of which 334 were at the port of Dover, and but 72 at the port of London; whilst, of British steam vessels from foreign ports, 621 ships, 149,748 tons, entered inwards at the port of London, and 940 ships, 59,081 tons, entered inwards at the port of Dover.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE BREAKWATER AT CARACCAS.

The following, translated from the Caraccas Liberal, of the 18th of January, 1845, will be read with interest:—"This work, now being constructed in the harbor of La Guayra, is not yet finished, but its beneficial results are already felt. Not only do small coasting vessels, which formerly had to anchor at a distance from the wharf, and discharge their cargoes by means of lighters, now lie alongside of it, but also vessels of a larger class, that require greater depth of water, approach near the wharf. On the 15th of January was seen in La Guayra, for the first time since the conquest, an American schooner from Charleston, coming up to the wharf, and, by means of planks, unloading all her cargo, without using lighters, or exposing it to be wet with salt water, and at a great saving of time and expense, notwithstanding the breakwater has reached but two-thirds of its length, and what is done is not in the state of perfection that it will be when it is finished. The advantages which this work is already producing, and will yet produce, both in foreign and native commerce, are incalculable. There can be no doubt that the value of the goods which were formerly damaged and lost in the wretched road of La Guayra, and the expenses that will hereafter be saved, will amount in a very short time to a much greater sum than the cost of this most important work.

SEA LIGHT AT BRUSTERORT, PRUSSIA.

The sea light at Brusterort, kingdom of Prussia, on the Baltic, has undergone an improved alteration, in consequence of which, two stationary lights have been formed, occupying the same place, and being of the same height as the former; each of which, however, will be visible, in clear weather, at a distance of two and a half German miles, and within a circle of 101 degrees of the horizon, from W. to N. to N. N. E. Both lanterns will be lit, for the first time, in the evening of the 1st of October this year, and after that will be kept burning from the setting to the rising of the sun. (Dated Berlin, September 15th, 1844.)

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

EXPORTS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES ADJOINING THE U. STATES.

The following law of the United States, allowing drawbacks upon foreign merchandise exported in the original packages to Chihuahua, and Santa Fe, in Mexico, and to the British North American Provinces, adjoining the United States, was passed at the session of Congress just closed, and approved by the President.

DRAWBACK ALLOWED ON GOODS EXPORTED TO THE TERRITORIES ADJOINING THE UNITED STATES.

1. That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fe, in New Mexico, either by the rout of the Arkansas river through Van Buren, or by the rout of the Red river through Fulton, or by the rout of the Missouri river through Independence.

2. That all the merchandise so exported shall be in the original packages as imported, a true invoice whereof, signed by the exporter, shall be made, to the satisfaction of the collector, describing accurately each package, with its contents and all the marks upon it, exclusive of the name of the exporter, the place of destination, and the rout by which it is to be exported; all which shall be inscribed thereon. Upon which invoice the collector shall certify that he is fully convinced the same is true, that the goods are in the original packages as imported, that they are duly entered for drawback, and to be exported by the owner, (naming him,) to either of the places aforesaid, (naming it,) and by one of the aforesaid routes, (naming it.)

3. That upon the arrival of such goods at either of the places in Arkansas or Missouri above named, they shall be again inspected and compared with the invoice and certificate aforesaid, by an officer of the United States, who shall, if fully convinced that the several packages are identical, having remained unbroken and unchanged, also certify on said invoice the facts, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe.

4. That upon the arrival of any such goods at Santa Fe or Chihuahua, they, with the invoice and certificates aforesaid, shall be submitted to the inspection of the Consul of the United States, or such agent as the President may appoint for that purpose; who, if fully convinced thereof, shall, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, certify upon said invoice that the goods have arrived there in the original packages as imported, without change or alteration, and have been exported from the United States in good faith, to be disposed of and consumed in a foreign country.

5. That if the exporter shall give bond, with satisfactory sureties, in thrice the amount of duties, that the said merchandise by him exported has been delivered at either of the places aforesaid without the United States, in good faith, to be sold and consumed there, and shall also produce said invoice, with the regular certificates thereon, the collector shall thereupon pay to him the usual drawback allowed by law.

6. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint inspectors to reside at each of the following places, to wit:—Van Buren, Fulton, and Independence, above named, or such other places in Missouri as the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate, who shall each have a salary of two hundred and fifty dollars, and make a full report of all the trade that passes under their inspection, to the Secretary of the treasury, semi-annually, giving an account of the number of packages, the kind of goods, the value, and the names of the exporters.

7. That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburgh, in the district of Champlain; Burlington, in the district of Vermont; Sackett's Harbor, Oswego, and Ogdensburgh, in the district of Oswegatchie; Rochester, in the district of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the district of Presqu'isle; Cleveland, in the district of Cuyahoga; Sandusky, and Detroit, together with such ports on the sea-board, from which merchandise may now be exported for the benefit of drawback, are hereby declared ports from whence foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares, and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water, form the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback: Provided, that such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may

have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

8. That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties upon goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such a drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this act, they shall produce to the collector of the port from which such goods, wares, and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares. and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining provinces: which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the said manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom-house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest granted at the time of such exportation had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom-house, and that the duties imposed thereon at the said foreign port had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

9. That no goods, wares, or merchandise, exported according to the provisions of this act, shall be voluntarily landed or brought into the United States; and on being so landed or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited; and the same proceeding shall be had for their condemnation, and the distribution of the proceeds of their sales, as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported. And every person concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States, shall be liable to a penalty of four hundred dollars.

10. That from the amount of duties upon any goods, wares and merchandise imported into the United States, and which shall be exported according to the provisions of this act, there shall be deducted two and a half per centum of such amount, which shall be retained by the respective collectors for the use of the United States, and the residue only shall be the drawback to be paid to the exporters of such goods, wares, and merchandise.

11. That the Secretary of the treasury is hereby fully authorized to prescribe such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as he may deem necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this act, and to prevent the illegal re-importation of any goods, wares or merchandise which shall have been exported as herein provided; and that all acts, or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act be, and the same is hereby repealed.

INLAND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following act of the United States extending the jurisdiction of the District Courts to certain cases upon the lakes and navigable waters connecting the same, was passed at the last session of Congress, and approved by the President, February 26th, 1845.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the district courts of the United States shall have, possess and exercise the same jurisdiction in matters of contract and tort arising in, upon, or concerning steamboats and other vessels of twenty tons burden and upwards, enrolled and licensed in the coasting trade, and at the time employed in the business of commerce and navigation between ports and places in different states and territories upon the lakes and navigable waters connecting said lakes, as is now possessed and exercised by the said courts in cases of the like steamboats employed and other vessels employed in navigation and commerce upon the high seas or tide-waters within the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction of the United States; and in all suits brought in such courts in all such matters of contract or tort, the remedies, and the forms of process, and the modes of proceeding, shall be the same as are or may be used by such courts in cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; and the maritime law of the United States, so far as the same is or may be applicable thereto, shall constitute the rule of decision in such suits, in the same manner,

and to the same extent, and with the same equities as it now does in cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; saving, however, to the parties the right of trial by jury of all facts put in issue in such suits, where either party shall require it; and saving, also, to the parties the right of a concurrent remedy at common law, where it is competent to give it, and any concurrent remedy which may be given by the state laws where such steamer or other vessel is employed in such business of commerce and navigation.

COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE WITH MIGNELON AND ST. PIERRE.

The following act regulating commercial intercourse with the Islands of Mignelon and St. Pierre, was passed at the last session of Congress, and approved by the President, March 3d, 1845.

That all French vessels coming directly from the islands of Mignelon and St. Pierre, either in ballast or laden with articles the growth or manufacture of either of said islands, and which are permitted to be exported therefrom in American vessels, may be admitted into the ports of the United States on payment of no higher duties on tonnage, or on their cargoes aforesaid, than are imposed on American vessels, and on like cargoes imported in American vessels: Provided, that this act shall not take effect until the President of the United States shall have received satisfactory information that similar privileges have been allowed to American vessels and their cargoes at said islands by the government of France, and shall have made proclamation accordingly; and whenever said privileges shall have been revoked or annulled, the President is hereby authorized, by proclamation, to suspend the operations of this act.

QUEBEC MERCHANTS' TARIFF,

WHEN NO AGREEMENT EXISTS TO THE CONTRARY.

For selling consignments, from ports or places out of the Canadas, without guarantee,	5 per cent.
For selling consignments, in ports or places in the Canadas, without guarantee,	2½ "
For delcredere, or guarantee of debts,	2½ "
For purchasing, shipping, and forwarding merchandise to ports or places out of the Canadas,	5 "
For purchasing, shipping, and forwarding merchandise to ports or places in the Canadas, when in funds,	2½ "
Otherwise,	5 "
For purchasing bills of exchange, stocks, or specie, with funds in hand,	½ "
For purchasing bills of exchange, stocks, or specie, taking reimbursements by bills or drafts,	1½ "
For endorsing bills of exchange,	2½ "
For collecting debts, and remitting the proceeds without endorsement of bills,	5 "
For receiving and remitting bank dividends,	1 "
For selling or purchasing vessels,	5 "
For chartering ships,	2½ "
For collecting or procuring freight, and on ships' disbursements,	5 "
For effecting insurance against loss by fire, on amount of premium,	5 "
For adjusting losses generally with insurance companies, on amount recovered,	2½ "
For receiving and paying moneys, from which no other commission is derived,	1 "
For receiving and forwarding goods from abroad, according to the bulk of each package, and the trouble attending it, per package,	6d. a 2s. 6d.
And on the amount of the responsibilities incurred by such agency,	2½ per ct.
On sale by auction, for the benefit of the underwriters, exclusive of the auctioneer's charge,	5 "

N. B.—The above commissions to be exclusive of storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred or disbursed.

The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietor of the goods.

On all commissions withdrawn, 2½ per cent commission to be charged.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

EXTENSION OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

While promoting the objects of our publication by adverting to a recent movement for extending American commercial intercourse, we have the additional satisfaction of rendering justice to a worthy legislator—the representative of the Greene and Columbia district of the State of New York.

The late appointment of a consul to Japan, renders it appropriate now to refer particularly to the condition of that empire; and we could not present facts in a better form than that in which they were submitted to Congress, by the Hon. Zadok Pratt, when ineffectually endeavoring to procure a liberal appropriation with Japan and Corea.

After premising that "it is important to the general interests of the United States that steady and persevering efforts should be made for the extension of American commerce, connected as that commerce is with the agriculture and manufactures of our country." Col. Pratt, in a memorandum submitted to the House of Representatives on the 15th of February, remarked that—

"The importance of intercourse with the Japanese empire has led to various attempts, by different nations, at sundry periods within the last three hundred years. Though all these attempts, excepting the Dutch, have proved abortive, that is not an adequate reason for our refraining from making a vigorous effort now.

"The Chinese Empire, long barricaded against commercial intercourse or diplomatic relations with other countries, is now measurably thrown open for the enterprise of Americans, as among 'the most favored nations,' and there is much reason for believing that a judicious embassy, characterized by the justice which should ever sway our government, will succeed in establishing intercourse with Japan and Corea that may be largely beneficial to the American people.

"Though Japan and Corea are much less extensive and populous than China, (with which we have just concluded an advantageous treaty,) both countries are well worthy of attention from the American people. Debarred from intercourse with Japan, the remainder of the world has paid less attention to that empire than its character may justly demand. With a population exceeding fifty millions, (about thrice as numerous as the whole population of the United States,) the Japanese empire combines a degree of civilization and power that may well render it respectable and formidable among the nations of the earth. That civilization, even judging from our imperfect knowledge concerning it, places Japan in advance of several countries with which our government now maintains diplomatic and commercial relations. The industry of the Japanese is said to be comparable with that of the Chinese; and many of the leading arts of useful life are practised by them with a degree of success unsurpassed in some of the European nations with which we are on terms of political intercourse. Though nearly all foreign trade is forbidden, the internal commerce of Japan (the trade between its large cities and populous provinces) is very extensive; the intercourse between the great markets and all sections of the empire being facilitated by numerous coasting vessels and well conditioned roads.

"The power of the government may be estimated by the statement that the army ordinarily consists of about a hundred thousand infantry and twenty thousand cavalry, which force is increased in warfare to more than four hundred thousand men. And as for agriculture, where is there in the world a country more industriously cultivated? The few travellers who have ever 'penetrated the interior,' concur in stating that the soil of Japan, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive; 'and the face of the country, even on the mountain sides, (which are formed into terraces, as in some parts of Italy and Persia,) is so diligently cultivated, that it would be difficult to find in the country a single nook of untilled land, even the dry summits of the mountains.' Jeddo, the chief town of the empire, is reputed to be one of the largest cities in the world. Little as we know of Japan, in comparison with our knowledge of other countries, we know enough of it to render us desirous of a closer acquaintance.

"Corea also possesses a large population—estimated at fifteen millions; and assimilates in character to the Chinese empire, with which it is slightly connected in political relations. The Coreans and Chinese, it may be added, are now nearly the only foreign-

ers with whom the Japanese allow any business intercourse, however limited. Though we cannot expect anything like equal advantages from intercourse with Corea, it seems desirable to include that country along with Japan in the projected mission, as negotiations with both countries may be despatched with little additional expense by the same ambassador.

"With the successful issue of the late mission to the Chinese empire, we may well feel encouraged to attempt an extension of our commercial intercourse with other nations nearly similarly situated; and where can we now find a better field for enterprise than is furnished by the countries included in the proposed mission—the empire of Japan and the kingdom of Corea, with their aggregate population of sixty or seventy millions?

"The missions should be placed on a liberal basis. 'The day and the hour' have now arrived for turning the enterprise of our merchants and seamen into the harbors and markets of these long-secluded countries. Another year should not elapse before the American people may be able to rejoice in the knowledge that the 'star-spangled banner' is recognized as an ample passport and protection for all of our enterprising countrymen, who may be engaged in extending American commerce into the countries to which it is now proposed to despatch suitable diplomatic and commercial agents on behalf of our government."

COUNTERFEIT GOLD SOVEREIGNS.

Messrs. Beebe & Parshall, brokers, of Wall-street, New York, sent a sovereign to R. M. Patterson, Esq., the superintendent of the United States Mint at Philadelphia, for examination, which proves to be a counterfeit, and a very dangerous one, in consequence of the difficulty of its detection. He says:—

"It bears the head of George IV., and the date 1824. It is of the full legal weight—123.3 grains. It has the proper color and texture, not only at the surface, but in the interior, as exhibited on cutting. It has the true diameter; and, though there is some excess in thickness, it is scarcely such as to attract attention. Its mechanical execution is so perfect, as to elude detection by an ordinary observer, even with the aid of a glass. There is, in fact, but one test, short of actual assay, by which it can be distinguished from the genuine piece; and it is, the trial by specific gravity. A genuine sovereign would show a specific gravity varying from 17.50 to 17.90. The piece in question gives but 16.22. On assay, it was found to be composed as follows:—

Gold,.....	803-1000ths.
Silver,.....	122-1000ths.
Copper,.....	72-1000ths.

"The value of the piece is $4 26. The genuine sovereign yields, very uniformly, 915½ thousandths of gold, and is worth from $4 83 to $4 86, according to weight. The profit to the maker, or loss to the holder of the false coin, is consequently 50 to 60 cents per piece, or 13 to 14 per cent. Counterfeiters are not usually content with such moderate gain; and it could only be made available by an operation on a large scale. There would seem, therefore, reason to apprehend that many such counterfeits have been made, and put in circulation. This is, however, the first that has come under our notice at the mint."

MAYSVILLE HEMP MARKET.

Some idea of the importance of the little city of Maysville, Ky., as a business point, may be obtained from the fact that it is the most extensive hemp market in the Union. "We have ascertained," says the Eagle, "at some trouble, the number of tons of hemp arrived at and sold in this market, or shipped to eastern ports on producer's account, during the months of January, February, and March. The total amount for that period is a fraction over 1,699 tons, or in round numbers 1,700 tons, of which 40 were water-rotted. At $60 per ton, which we have found upon an accurate calculation to be the average price during that time, at contract, as well as at ordinary sale, the sum total is presented of one hundred and two thousand dollars; most of which amount, in actual cash, has been disbursed in Maysville, by our own manufacturers, or by agents of other manufacturing houses at a distance, and commission merchants."

CURIOSITIES OF TRADE.

It is, says the Philadelphia American, a very generally admitted fact, that Gulf of Mexico risks are taken by our Insurance Offices at inadequate premiums. There has lately come to our knowledge the history of a successful speculation upon this moderation of the officers. A house in New York having a large quantity of merchandise, largely and hopelessly depreciated in value, shipped and re-shipped the goods between that port and New Orleans, well covered, adding at each trip the amount of the successive premiums. When this had reached about thirty per cent, the Insurance Company paid for the property. Will some of our casuists say if this was altogether fair?

The following story is told of a comb factory at Meriden, Connecticut:—"The proprietors one day put up a quantity of combs, of the first and second qualities, with American labels, and some of the third quality with English labels, and sent the whole to one of their customers in New York. A gentleman stepped into the store where they were for sale, and after examining the different qualities for some time, took up those with the English label, and said, 'Well, the English do make the best article after all.'"

FIRST ARRIVAL OF SUGAR FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The Liverpool (Eng.) Times says:—"On Sunday last, the American ship Franconia arrived in this port, bringing as part of her cargo twelve hogsheads of Louisiana sugar. This is the first arrival of American grown sugar in this country, but we suspect that it is only the beginning of a trade which will, in a few years, become a very considerable one, if the new sugar duties of Sir Robert Peel should pass in their present form. The sugar received by the Franconia must necessarily have been shipped before anything was known or suspected of the reduction of duties now proposed; and must, therefore, have been sent here for the purpose of ascertaining whether they could be imported with profit at a duty of 36s. per cwt.; so that, if there was any chance, whatever, of their succeeding under such a duty, they cannot fail to pay handsomely, now that the duty is reduced to 24s. per cwt. We feel no doubt that they will pay if they are at all well selected; for on Saturday last we saw samples of two other expected lots of American sugar, both of which had been examined by a sugar broker, who states that they will leave a handsome profit—at least 10 per cent—in this country, even if the price of sugar should fall to the full extent of the duty repealed. The prices, therefore, are no obstacle."

MINERAL RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

The mineral resources in Alabama are of great variety and abundance, but as yet undeveloped. From the report of the committee on agriculture, at the late session of the legislature, we learn that there are five principal, and several other minor mines of gold and silver in Randolph county, producing about $125,000 annually, and affording employment to 300 or 500 persons. In the same county, are inexhaustible beds of iron ore, which does not lose 25 per cent in smelting. Tallapoosa, too, is rich in gold and silver mines, and they afford employment to several hundred hands. Goldville is supported by one mine. Gold, too, has been found in Coosa, Talladega, and Chambers. There are iron foundries in Benton and Talladega. No doubt, were this rich mineral region examined by a scientific person, many valuable discoveries might be made. In Blount, nitre is found in abundance. This side of Tuscaloosa, coal is found in immense quantities, and in many other places. In Clarke, salt can be manufactured at or near Jackson. Iron ore, marble, granite, limestone, etc., are also found in this county. Lead ore, in large quantities, and of excellent quality, is found in the bed of the Tennessee, on the Muscle Shoals; and all these, and others, exist in many other sections of the state.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*An Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy, comprising an Introduction to the Science.* By WILLIAM PHILLIPS, F. L. S., etc., etc., Honorary Member of the Cambridge and Yorkshire Philosophical Societies. Fifth edition, from the fourth London edition, by ROBERT ALLAN; containing the Latest Discoveries in American and Foreign Mineralogy. With Numerous Additions to the Introduction. By FRANCIS ALGER, Member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; of the National Institute for the Promotion of Science, etc., etc. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

This elementary treatise on mineralogy has passed through five editions in England, where we know, from good authority, that it is regarded as the best and most useful treatise in the language. It embraces, of course, the entire labors of Mr. Phillips; and the additions made to it by Mr. Alger, the American editor, are neither few in number, nor small in quantity. The fact is, Mr. Alger is not a mere "scissors and paste" book-maker, but a learned and laborious scholar, as will be readily inferred, even by those who are not acquainted with the fact, (as we are,) from a careful examination of the numerous and valuable additions which he has made to it, touching the mineralogical resources of our own country. The matter introduced by Mr. Alger exceeds three hundred pages. It comprises over one hundred additional figures in the introduction and the descriptive part; with the new species, foreign and American, brought into notice since the date of the last edition, and the addition of many foreign, as well as all the important American localities. The principal authorities consulted by Mr. A., in making the additions, have been the State reports by Professors Hitchcock, Beck, Emmons, Shepherd, Rogers, Drs. Troost, Jackson, and Haughton. The localities in Nova Scotia are from the personal observations of Mr. Alger and Dr. Jackson. It forms a beautifully printed volume, of nearly 700 octavo pages, in the best style of Boston typography.

2.—*Dictionary of Practical Medicine; comprising General Pathology, the Nature and Treatment of Diseases, Morbid Structures, &c.* By JAMES COPLAND, M. D., F. R. S. Edited, with Additions, by CHARLES A. LEE, M. D. 8vo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Four numbers, (144 pages each,) of this new medical dictionary have already been published. It will be completed in about twenty numbers, and form four octavo volumes, of more than 600 pages each. We shall notice the work as it progresses; but, in the meantime, we cannot perhaps render a more acceptable service to the enterprising publishers and the public, than to annex the introductory notice of the American editor:—

"Regarding this work as decidedly the leading medical production of the age, both as regards the philosophy it inculcates, the vast accumulation of facts it presents, as well as the systematic order in which they are arranged, the editor will not feel himself justified in altering, in the slightest degree, the original text. He therefore pledges himself to preserve the different articles in their integrity, neither mutilating by omissions, nor qualifying by alterations and modifications. Indeed, so highly elaborated and finished are the different articles, that they form very complete monographs on the subjects of which they treat; and no one could expect, unless prompted by a high degree of arrogance and self-conceit, to be able to improve upon the labors of the accomplished author. But it is to be borne in mind, at the same time, that, as medicine is a rapidly progressive science, additions are constantly being made to our knowledge, in its various departments. Moreover, the medical literature of our country is but little known across the Atlantic, and the works of American physicians have heretofore not perhaps received that degree of attention abroad, to which they are justly entitled. These omissions and deficiencies, so far as they exist, it is the design of the publisher to have supplied; and it will, therefore, be the aim of the editor to keep this object especially in view. It is a fact also universally acknowledged, that, in consequence of the diversified range of our climate, and its extreme vicissitudes, we have diseases which are not only unknown to the milder and more uniform climate of Great Britain, as yellow fever, cholera infantum, etc., but many of our diseases assume a type and malignancy never witnessed in that country; and hence they require important modifications with regard to their treatment. These facts will not be lost sight of in editing the work; and in whatever additions may be made, practical utility will be constantly kept in view. Such additions will be included in brackets [ ]."

3.—*Researches on Scrofulous Diseases.* By J. G. A. LUGOL. Translated from the French. By A. SIDNEY DOANE, M. D. With an Appendix, comprising Formulæ for the Treatment of Scrofula. New York: J. S. Redfield.

We are highly gratified with Dr. Doane's labor, in presenting us this volume in our own Americana-Saxon tongue; and only wish that he had carried out his system, by giving us the quantities prescribed in the formulæ of his Appendix—not in the semi-barbaric contractions, but in plain words and figures. From a variety of observations, we have no doubt that mistakes of a very mischievous character and tendency are often made by the boys in drug stores, through an involuntary misapprehension of the old-fashioned and absurd medical hieroglyphics. A short time since, we were standing in a chemical shop, and a prescription was offered to one of the attendants of mature age, who refused to put up the mixture, on account of the indistinctness of the pencil-marks; but, turning round, he asked us if we recollected the quantities intended. We satisfied him on that point, and the medicine was sent; but, had the prescription been offered to one of the juniors, in his thoughtlessness, he would probably have put up the materia in deadly proportions. We advise all physicians to call things by their right names—grain, scruple, dram, one, four, seven, ten; and leave all cabalism with the impostors of the dark ages. However, Dr. Lugol's Researches are the result of long and extensive observation and medical practice, and are as rational as doubtless they are accurate; and, while we are indebted to Dr. Doane for his valuable work, we trust not only physicians but all other persons, will study his beneficial treatise on scrofula.

4.—*Life on the Ocean; or, Twenty-Five Years at Sea; being the Personal Adventures of the Author.* By GEORGE LITTLE, for many years Captain in the Merchant Service, out of the Port of Baltimore, but now entirely Blind. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

This is an interesting volume, detailing the chequered and constantly changing events and circumstances of a sailor's life on the ocean, for the space of twenty-five years. The period of his wanderings was during a memorable epoch in the world's history. Europe was subjected to successive and continued revolutions. The nations of that continent were engaged in a deadly struggle for political existence; and while the two rival powers, France and England, were each putting forth its mightiest efforts to secure the controlling influence, our infant republic was reaping a rich and abundant harvest, in supplying the necessities of the belligerents—thus developing her boundless resources, and laying the foundation of her naval prowess, which shone so conspicuously in her subsequent conflict with Great Britain. In many of the exciting incidents growing out of these events, the author of this volume was an actor; and a participator, too, in the exposures and sufferings which war inevitably occasions. The full and apparently faithful view he has given of nautical life, will more than overbalance whatever errors in composition he has committed. His style, though homely, is graphic, and the volume is calculated to remove many erroneous and unfavorable impressions which prevail in relation to the character and habits of seamen.

5.—*A Treatise on the American Law of Landlord and Tenant, having reference to the Statutory Provisions and Decisions of the several United States, with a Selection of Precedents.* By JOHN N. TAYLOR, Counsellor at Law. New York: John S. Voorhies.

This, we believe, is the first American work of any importance on the law of landlord and tenant. The learned, but nearly obsolete works of Woodfall and Comyn, are considered almost useless in this country, from the fact of their failing to exhibit a correct view of the law as it exists, under the influence of our republican institutions, reformed by the commercial spirit of the age, and refined by the intelligence of our judiciary. The present work, Mr. Taylor informs us, is intended to supply a want of daily interest, not only to the profession, but also to the community. It is a plain, brief summary of the doctrines of the common law, including the later English cases, so far as they are applicable to the United States, with their statutory alterations and modifications, and the leading decisions in those states where the legal science has been most cultivated and improved. The work is highly recommended by some of our leading jurists, who are, of course, better able to estimate its value than the un-professional editor of this Magazine.

6.—*A History of the Society of Friends: Compiled from its Standard Records, and other Authentic Sources.* By WILLIAM R. WAGSTAFF, M. D. Part 1. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Although Friends, says the author of this volume, have many ably written records of the rise and progress of their society, yet they are, as is well known, in a great measure unadapted to general reading, either from their quaintness, or their verbosity of style. This, he adds, accounts for the acknowledged ignorance of the society as to its history, and especially the youth, who deem it a severe task, instead of a pleasure, to ponder over its pages, where they might with advantage reflect on the character and lives of those men, who, though they did not dazzle the eyes of mankind with any brilliant schemes of worldly ambition, ennobled themselves and the human family by raising and supporting the standard of Christianity within, as the bulwark of pure religion. Dr. W., during the hours of relaxation from his profession, has, with commendable zeal, collected and digested the materials necessary for such a work; and, in the volume before us, given them in a clear and comprehensive form. The present part is devoted to transactions on the other side of the Atlantic. A second part, containing a full account of the trials and privations of the society in the Western world, is soon to appear.

7.—*Human Magnetism: its Claims to Dispassionate Inquiry. Being an Attempt to show the Utility of its Application for the Relief of Human Suffering.* By W. NEWNHAM, Esq., M. R. S. L. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

So far as we are capable of judging, this volume appears to contain a rational defence of human magnetism, particularly in its application for the relief of physical suffering. The introduction is quite elaborate, and contains, besides, thirteen chapters, each devoted to a particular branch of the subject. The second chapter goes to show that magnetism is not a satanic agency, nor supernatural. The opposition of medical men, generally, to the doctrine of magnetism, is considered in one chapter, and its applicability to the relief of medical and surgical disease in another. We go for examining everything that prefers a claim upon human investigation; and would not, therefore, lightly reject a subject that has elicited the attention of so many wise and good men. "Prove all things—hold fast that which is good," is as applicable to magnetism, as to politics or religion.

8.—*The Recruit; a Compilation of Exercises and Movements of Infantry, Light Infantry, and Riflemen, according to the Latest Improvements.* By Captain JOHN T. CAIRNS. New York: E. Walker.

We never performed but one half day's "military duty, as the law directs," in our life; and we have no wish to do another. We have no taste, talent, or inclination for "arms;" and our judgment on the merits of a manual of this description is, therefore, not worth a straw. We are, moreover, opposed to the whole system of fighting, and consider it at once wicked and ridiculous—a conclusive evidence of that depravity which the founder of Christianity came to save men from. A "Christian" soldier, appears to us a perfect anomaly. To call such a one an infidel, would be far more charitable than to deal out the stigma upon the whole race of deists, from Hume down to Parker.

9.—*A Treatise upon the Diseases and Hygiene of the Organs of the Voice.* By COLOMBAT DE L'ISERE, M. D., etc., etc. Translated by J. F. W. LANE, M. D. Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

The favorable and unique situation which the author of this treatise occupied for many years, as founder and director of the Orthophonic Institution, at Paris, afforded him such means of observation upon this class of affections, as have fallen to the lot of no other person. He received from the Royal Academy of Sciences the prize of five thousand francs, for his works upon the mechanism of pronunciation, and his success in the treatment of errors of speech, and particularly that of stuttering. It describes the physiology and diseases of the organs of the voice, the medical treatment of the more common of these affections, and the conditions necessary to preserve their health. Such points as related strictly to surgical details, the translator has omitted, in order to render them more compact, and practically useful to the general reader.

10.—*The Farmers' and Emigrants' Hand-Book; being a Full and Complete Guide for the Farmer and the Emigrant; comprising the clearing of Forest and Prairie Land, Gardening, Farming, generally, Tannery, Cookery, and the Prevention and Cure of Diseases. With Copious Hints, Recipes, and Tables.* By JOSIAH T. MARSHALL, author of "The Emigrant's True Guide." New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This volume, as will be seen by the title-page, quoted in full, embraces a wide range of subjects. It appears to be a luminous and ample directory and guide for the emigrant from the European countries and from the eastern states, about to remove and settle in the far west; and is well calculated, so far as we can judge, to enable them to meet the numberless trials and disadvantages that must inevitably fall in their way without the information furnished in the present volume. Indeed we, who have no idea of leaving our home in the east, find much in it to interest and instruct us in matters of which we were ignorant.

11.—*The Goldmaker's Village.* Translated from the German of H. ZSCHOKKE. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This forms another of the admirable series of books in course of publication, under the general title of "Tales for the People, and their Children." The publishers state, in a note appended, that this narrative of the "Goldmaker's Village" is the first of "a series of choice biographical and scenic works, designed for household instruction and improvement." It is written in the same spirit, and with equal truthfulness and veracity, as the narratives included in that popular volume, published some months since—"Incidents of Social Life amid the European Alps."

12.—*History of Europe, from the Commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON, F. R. S. E. Abridged from the last London edition. By EDWARD S. GOULD. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This is the third edition of Mr. Gould's admirable abridgment of Alison. Our opinion of its character was expressed on its first appearance, in the pages of this Magazine. It is fast becoming a text-book in our colleges, academies, and other seminaries of learning, for which it is well adapted, by the addition of numerous questions, &c. The unequivocal recommendations which have been awarded to Mr. Gould's abridgment, by such men as Chancellor Kent, Judge Story, Dr. Matthews, late Chancellor of the University of New York, and other eminent authorities, renders anything that we might say in its favor a work of supererogation.

13.—*A Plain System of Elocution; or, Logical and Musical Reading and Declamation, with Exercises in Prose and Verse, etc.* By G. VANDENHOFF. New York: C. Shepherd.

This is the second edition of this work, considerably enlarged. It has before been noticed in this Magazine. The exercises are distinctly marked for the guidance of the ear and voice of the pupil; and there is moreover added an appendix, containing a copious practice in oratorical, poetical, and dramatic reading and recitation. It is designed not only for classes, and the use of schools, but for private pupils; and is highly recommended by teachers, and several leading Journals. It is not remarkably well printed, although in large and distinct type.

14.—*An Essay on the Philosophy of Medical Science.* By ELISHA BARTLETT, M. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine in the University of Maryland. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

From the examination we have been able to bestow on this essay of the philosophy of medical science, we are satisfied that it is the production of an attentive student, who has drunk deeply of the philosophy of his profession from an ardent devotion to it. It differs widely from any treatise of the kind that has fallen under our observation, and has more originality than we usually meet with in professional works. It is, moreover, written in a clear and beautiful style, and may be read with profit and pleasure by all who wish to learn something valuable concerning the philosophy of a subject of so much importance to the race.

15.—*Harper's Family Library, No. 172. Voyages Round the World, from the Death of Captain Cook to the Present Time; including Remarks on the Social Condition of the Inhabitants of the Recently Discovered Countries, their Progress in the Arts, and more especially their Advancement in Religious Knowledge.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume, forming the 172d number of the Family Library, and a continuation of the 21st volume of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library, or the 82d number of the Family, furnishes the reader with a narrative of the various voyages round the world, prior to the death of the celebrated Captain Cook. It commences with Portloch and Dixon, and closes with the voyages of Morgen, Wilson, Belcher, and Ross. Although an outline history of the most interesting voyages of discovery, it presents a comprehensive view of the subjects embraced.

16.—*Wright's "Practical Grammar of the English Language;" "Hours of Idleness Improved, or Tete-a-Tete Conversation on Language and Belles Lettres;" and "Philosophical Lectures on Language."* New York: Barnard & Co.

An examination of these useful and interesting works on the structure of our language, induces us to unite in the numerous and highly respectable plaudits conferred on their merits, by the most distinguished linguists on both sides of the Atlantic. We have no hesitation in commending these works to all persons desirous of obtaining a critical and philosophical knowledge of the peculiarities of the English language.

17.—*Hymns on the Psalms.* New York: Robert Carter.

A new, beautiful, and cheap edition of a well known standard work, that has been read and admired by the wise and good men of all religious sects. The chief peculiarity of the present edition is an elaborate and eloquent introduction, by the late Edward Irving, the celebrated minister of the Caledonian Church in London. It forms an octavo volume of nearly six hundred pages, and is afforded at $1 50.

18.—*Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second Series. Vol. 5. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The fifth volume of this admirable collection of biographical sketches of eminent Americans, embraces the lives of Count Rumford, Zebulun Montgomery Pike, and Samuel Gaston. The memoir of Benjamin Thompson, Count of Rumford, occupies more than one-half the volume, and was prepared by James Renwick, LL. D. It appears to be a concise, and at the same time comprehensive narrative, presenting all the most prominent events and circumstances in the life of that remarkable man.

19.—*Domestic Slavery Considered as a Scriptural Institution, in a Correspondence between the Rev. Richard Fuller, of S. C., and Rev. Francis Wayland, of R. I.* New York: Lewis Colby.

This little volume contains the correspondence on the subject of slavery which took place between Drs. Fuller and Wayland. It has been revised by the authors, and a preface by Dr. Wayland appears, which has the sanction of Dr. Fuller.

20.—*The Governmental Instructor; or, A Brief and Comprehensive View of the Government of the United States, and of the State Governments, in Easy Lessons.* By J. B. SHURTLEFF. New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

The title sufficiently explains the object of this little manual. It is designed for the use of schools, but the information it contains should be understood by every citizen in our republic. The volume is neatly printed, and the statements in regard to the rights, duties, etc., of the people, presented in a clear and concise form.

21.—*Keeping House and Housekeeping. A Story of Domestic Life.* Edited by Mrs. SARAH J. HALE. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A tale of domestic life, inculcating in the author's happiest vein those moral and social qualities which have ever been exemplified in her own experience of a well regulated and happy home. Mrs. Hale is not an elegant writer, but the various productions of her pen are marked for their good sense, and generally correct views.

22.—*Alnwick Castle, with other Poems.* By FITZ-GREENE HALLECK. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A new and beautiful edition of the poems of one of whom it is too late in the day for us to offer a single remark. The volume contains eighteen pieces. We only regret that Mr. Halleck has not written and published more; as everything he has written is a gem in our American literature.

23.—*Isabel; or, The Trials of the Heart. A Tale for the Young. In Two Parts.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have in this little volume a narrative of the daily life of one whose career was unmarked by romantic incidents or unusual adventures, and who pursued "the even tenor of her way" through those ordinary and seemingly insignificant trials, the endurance of which, nevertheless, often tests our faith and patience to the utmost. It is, however, an interesting and instructive book, that will afford amusement and instruction to the thousands similarly situated in life.

24.—*The Private Purse, and other Tales.* By Mrs. S. C. HALL. New York: C. S. Francis & Co.

An excellent volume, comprising one of the series of "Francis & Co.'s Little Library, for Young Persons of Different Ages." It may be read with profit and delight, not only by "young persons," but persons more advanced in life, occupying any of its social relations.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, PUBLISHED BY HARPER AND BROTHERS, SINCE OUR LAST.

Harper's Pocket Edition of Select Novels, without Abridgement, Nos. 5, 6, 7; containing Cora De Leon; or, The Brigand. By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. Two volumes in one.—*The Ancient Regime, a Tale.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. Two volumes in one; and *The Man-at-Arms; or, Henry de Cerone.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. [These volumes contain about 400 pages, 18mo., each, and are sold at 25 cents per volume.] *St. Patrick's Eve.* By CHARLES LEVER. 8vo., pp. 38, price 6 cents.—*New Orleans as I Found It.* By H. DIDIMUS. 8vo., pp. 125, price 25 cents. Also, *Nos. 50 and 51 Library of Select Novels, embracing the Gambler's Wife, a Novel,* by the author of the "Young Prima Donna," etc., pp. 154; and *Veronica, or the Free Court of Aarau,* translated from the German of ZSCHOKKE, by the author of "Giafar Al Barmeki," pp. 111—25 cents each.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JUNE, 1845.

Art. I.—COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.*

IV.

Afflicted with the sight of our exceeding inferiority in this respect, many men, otherwise enlightened, have been disposed to conclude that the habit of association was not consistent with the tendencies of the French people; that French commerce was deficient in the instinct necessary for its production; that its power was not appreciated; and that, consequently, its want was unfelt. How strange is this mode of regarding the character and tendencies of a nation! and yet, with this assumption as a basis, these persons have come before the world as teachers, and have undertaken to read lectures to the merchants, with a view to their instruction. Instead of bestowing upon trade and traders their very useless lessons, they might advantageously turn to those who make laws, and invite them, not to establish companies, nor even to favor the habit of association by any encouragement, which would be superfluous where so many individual interests are tending constantly to its production, but simply to remove the restraints and prohibitions by which natural tendencies are counteracted. It was long since proved that French commerce was not inferior, in this respect, to that of other nations, when let alone, and that for the production of the institutions that are needed, nothing was necessary but the grant to the French people of a little of the same liberty that is enjoyed by the English and the Americans.

We have not far to seek for proofs that such is the case, having had but lately most disastrous evidence of the fact. The errors and abuses remarked in the recent formation and conduct of limited partnerships, in transferable shares, afford striking evidence, first, of the tendency of capital in the direction of commercial association, and second, of the defects in the law. They had their origin in the efforts made by the spirit of association to enlarge its sphere of action, and to relieve itself from the legislative restraints by which it was overpowered and smothered. It was

* Conclusion of the article, commenced in the May number of this Magazine.

not the spirit that was wanted. That was exhibited in all directions, but the law did not permit its development, and it was held captive, notwithstanding all its struggles for freedom. In the effort it turned and twisted the law by which it felt itself to be opposed and oppressed. Everything was done to make the law bend to its desires, and from this unfortunate warfare between the spirit of association seeking a field for the exertion of its powers, and the spirit of regulation seeking its repression within the prescribed limits, have arisen the many disorders and abuses that are complained of.

In looking at the picture presented to us by the events of the last few years, that which first strikes us is the great importance which the system of limited partnership has acquired, both for the number of the associations, and from the magnitude of the operations which they have attempted. If the reader has fully understood what we have already said in reference to this species of association, he must be satisfied that it was not intended for such extensive undertakings; and yet so great has been the tendency in that direction, that there has been a disposition to apply it to everything, and no enterprise has been thought too great to be brought within its domain. Whence has arisen the almost exclusive predominance of this particular form? It has been produced by the necessity of the case, as the reader must already have seen. The common partnership not being, by reason of its numerous requirements, susceptible of application to extensive operations, and there being no power to form the *societes anonymes*, the limited partnership has been the sole outlet by means of which the spirit of association could find employment on a large scale for its energies, and every one that has desired to invoke its aid in support of a project of any importance, has availed himself of that form, not as the best, but as the only possible one. The capitalist, willing to secure to himself some of the advantages likely to result from co-operation with his fellow men, and to benefit by the chances offered by extensive enterprises, has been obliged to resort to the companies formed on this principle, not as to those which offered the most satisfactory securities, but as being those to which alone large operations seemed to belong. Projectors and capitalists, have resorted thereto, without reflection or enquiry, for enquiry is useless when there is no freedom of choice, and thus has the limited partnership become, notwithstanding its great defects, almost the only species of commercial association.

It has been said, and truly, that most of the limited partnerships, recently formed, have been a sort of disguised *societes anonymes*, usurping the place that should be occupied by that species of association. A man, not remarkable for steadiness, or for the possession of any remarkable talent, and having neither an establishment of his own, nor the means to form one, presented himself: he called around him persons who had capital to invest: and as soon as he had succeeded in forming an association with a sufficient capital, he constituted himself the acting partner. At other times, capitalists came together spontaneously, and with reference to some determinate object, and having assessed themselves for the creation of a joint capital, they then invited the co-operation of other persons like themselves. In both of these cases, we see the elements of the *societe anonyme*. As the shareholders had alone contributed to the formation of the capital, they were the true founders of the company—or rather they were the company itself; and the acting partner, whether he opened the

subscription lists, or was subsequently called in, was but a secondary part of the machine, easy to replace if necessary. The association existed neither in nor by him, because he could at any time retire without altering the conditions of its existence: nor did its future action depend in any measure upon him, because he had contributed nothing that was essential to its success. The shareholders had done all, and were all. It was in them alone that the supreme control should have rested, while the acting partner, the man of their selection, and the work of their hands, should have exercised only a limited power, under their direction, and liable to revocation; and yet we see in how many cases, by the mere fact of selecting such a person, the mass of the shareholders have found themselves deprived of all influence, while he, to whom the association owed nothing, installed himself as master, invested with irrevocable power, uncontrolled and unlimited.

This change of position between the two descriptions of partners, was, in itself, a serious evil. We are not disposed to say that it was always the result of improper intentions on the side of the acting partners; on the contrary, we see that it was forced upon them by the state of the commercial law, which prevented the formation of *compagnes anonymes*. But for this, it cannot be supposed that the shareholders would have been so devoid of sense as to abdicate all control, and thus deprive themselves of all security, when both could so readily have been retained; or, that the managers, whether proprietors or not, would have dared to propose such a course. It is to the law, therefore, and to the law alone, that we must look for the cause of this deviation from true principle, in itself a great error, and to become, upon occasion, the germ of others.

Let us suppose, and happily the case is not rare, an entire good faith on the part of the shareholders, the special partners, and the acting partners; and yet, even here, we shall find that the unnatural adoption of the limited partnership brings with it inconvenience of more kinds than one.

In the first place, it may happen that the person chosen for acting partner, although irreproachably correct, may prove unfitted for the business with which he is charged. And this will frequently happen; for in a new concern, sometimes devoted to a new kind of trade, it is difficult to be certain of the correctness of a first choice. Even without any such occurrence, it is still an evil that the parties interested should be deprived of all control, because there is no man so honest, or so capable, as not at times to require that his actions should be subjected to some supervision, when charged with the management of the affairs of others. Even honesty itself sometimes gives way, and the most active may be tempted to loiter when the spur is unfelt, thereby omitting to avail himself to the full extent of the means placed at his command. In the *societe anonyme*, supreme authority is in the hands of the shareholders; the true proprietors; and the managers are their agents, responsible to them, and liable to be changed at their pleasure; and in the desire to avoid the danger of dismissal will be found the greatest possible stimulus to exertion. What is there of this in the limited partnership? The special partner may pretend to inspect and advise, as is sometimes done; but where is his authority? Unless the acting partner be guilty of acts that are sufficiently culpable to warrant bringing him before a court, a state of things to which we do not here refer, they have no right but that of remonstrance, and however good may be their intentions, they are powerless when op-

posing themselves to the unlimited and irrevocable authority of the partner of their selection. What is the value of such inspection, deprived as it is of all power of action?

Our readers will understand that what we have here said, does not apply in the cases of limited partnerships, founded on true principles, and which are distinguished by the following characters: first, that of having at their head a person well known to possess the peculiar talent that was required; and second, that the undertaking is in some measure his own property, from the extent of his investment, and his interest in its success —a state of things affording the security for attention and good management that warrants dispensing with the responsibility of the special partner; whereas, in the bastard limited partnerships that have been founded in such numbers within a few years, negligence and mismanagement have been of ordinary, and frequently fatal, occurrence.

Another consequence, too, is that this mismanagement is always the most highly paid. It is almost impossible to keep the salary of an acting partner within the modest limits prescribed for that of manager of a *societe anonyme*. The last being simply an elected officer, and liable to be discharged, is subject to the control, direct or indirect, of his constituents, and must content himself with a compensation proportioned to the duties to be performed. As he does not represent the association, which dispenses with the use of his name, and as he is under no responsibility for its debts, he gives only his time, activity, and intelligence, for which he is to be paid. With the acting partner there are other circumstances to be considered. Without referring now to the enormous sums which some of these persons have been permitted to fix as the measure of their compensation, it is obvious that there are important considerations by which he is distinguished from the manager of a *societe anonyme*. Being invested with supreme authority, his salary must be proportioned to the power which he exercises. He represents the association, which is known by his name alone. It is identified with him, and all its faculties become in some sort his own. Could he, under these circumstances, content himself with the moderate compensation suited to a mere manager, who is subject to the direction of others, and removable at their pleasure? Would it be reasonable that he should do so? His responsibility would of itself entitle him to an increased allowance, although it is perfectly well understood that in a majority of cases it is only nominal, the acting partner offering in himself no security whatever for the faithful compliance with contracts: certainly none at all proportioned to the magnitude of the enterprise in which he is engaged. This responsibility is nothing but a deception required by the state of the law. It adds nothing to the credit of the company, and is only a false and worthless apology for security as regards those who trade with it, yet, while thus benefitting no one, it is not the less a burthen to those who are forced to avail themselves of it in their transactions with the public. Useless to all the world, it yet weighs heavily upon those who have to pay for it, and the more so, as the expense is disproportioned to their means. It helps to break them down by diminishing their present resources, while involving them in liabilities for the future to an extent difficult to be defined; a false position produced by the state of the law, in which expenditure is caused without object, and sacrifices are made without result. The labor that demands compensation, and will have it, is that of the acting partner. Profitable or not to

those who are compelled to require him, he is to be paid for, not at the price he is worth, but that at which he values himself, and that is most highly.

We can now readily understand the reasons for the exaggeration, by acting partners, of the advantages likely to be derived from the formation of many of the associations we have seen: the motives for the gratuitous distribution of stock under the name of *actions industrielles*—working shares: the enormous salaries: the allowances, premiums, &c. &c.,—all of which have been very burthensome to the companies, and have tended greatly to endanger the success of undertakings the best planned. They are the natural and inevitable results of the substitution of the limited partnership for the *societe anonyme*.

We find all these difficulties in considering the proceedings of associations formed with the most honorable intentions, and administered in the most faithful manner; but it is far worse when we look to those of the fraudulent ones to which the forced adoption of this form of association has given birth. The reader can readily see how great is the facility offered by the situation of acting partner, for the performance of tricks, and how much, both before and after the formation of the company, this form tends to facilitate the manœuvres of sharpers and speculators. It is in the nature of this association that the acting partner assembles around him, not true associates, men equal to himself, but merely persons who supply capital; and it is a part of his business to prepare, in advance, and without their assistance, the conditions of the undertaking, which he takes care to make to suit himself. The agreement, thus prepared, and the company thus far formed, he seeks for associates. Such are the requisitions of the law, which recognizes neither existence nor authority, except that of the acting partner. Those who desire shares can subscribe for them, and in doing so they give in their adhesion to an agreement prepared without their assistance, and of the tenor of which they are frequently ignorant; thus placing themselves at the mercy of those who invoke their aid—a condition of things that generally continues during the existence of the association.

We shall not attempt to furnish a finished picture of the disorders to which such a course of proceeding has given birth. There are enough who could speak upon this sorrowful subject, having been abundantly enlightened in regard to it. It suffices to us to have traced these disorders to their true source, and to have shown that the law, by its unfortunate adoption of a system of regulations and restrictions, the effect of which is not understood, prevents among us the honest and profitable use of the great principle of association, while leaving ample room for abuses of every kind.

That the reader may more fully understand the scope of the preceding remarks, we propose now to offer some observations upon the example set in a neighboring state. It is by pursuing a course directly the reverse of ours, that England has placed herself so far in advance of us, as regards the great principle of commercial association. An examination of her system will show, that if not exempt from defects, it is at least free from many of those to which we have had occasion to invite the reader's attention.

V.

It is always useful to compare the laws of different countries, but in so doing it is necessary to be very careful to avoid being misled by false analogies. Too often, in studying foreign legislation, we seize upon some prominent parts of the system, analogous to those which exist among ourselves, and adjust and arrange them according to some preconceived notions, thus producing an imaginary state of things, upon which we proceed to reason as if it were true—a mode of proceeding far more likely to mislead than to enlighten. Instead of tending to the rejection of false principles of legislation that have existed among us, it enables those who are interested in the perpetuation of abuses, to adduce the authority of others in aid thereof, and thus, perhaps, to diminish the little light previously obtained. Such has been, we think, the effect of the comparisons that have at different times been instituted between the systems of England and France, in this matter of commercial association.

Examining the English system with French ideas, by aid of certain vague and general indications, and regarding it as a sort of counterpart of our own, in which are found the various forms of association known among us, except that of limited partnership, it is forthwith concluded that all that would be required to produce a perfect equality, in this respect, between the two nations, and to render the two systems almost identical with each other, would be the abolition of that mode of association. Such, in fact, was the reasoning of a minister of France, when, in 1838, he proposed to the Chambers the entire abolition of the limited partnership by means of shares, stating that it would leave France then in possession of a better system than that of any country in the world—better than that of England herself, because there would remain not only all the forms of association there recognized, but the limited partnership in addition, which there was not tolerated. This was a strange error, and one that the most careless examination of well-known facts would have sufficed to dissipate.

Were the limited partnership, by means of shares, suppressed in France, what would remain of association on a large scale! Nothing but a few *compagnies anonymes*, any increase of whose number is likely to be exceedingly limited, because of the excessive strictness of the conditions imposed upon their formation; and, therefore, with this suppression would disappear all hope of the undertaking of extensive operations of any kind, as it is this form alone that enjoys anything like freedom, and the consequent power of application on a large scale. On the other hand, we see that even in the existing state of her legislation, England possesses, in addition to her incorporated companies, which may be compared with our *societes anonymes*, a prodigious number of companies, with transferable stock, as imposing by the extent of the association, as by that of their capital, and which are yet mere ordinary partnerships. In presence of this fact, so universally known, the ministerial theory falls to the ground.

We look in vain to the legislation of England for our division of associations into three forms, and are forced to believe that it is a conception peculiar to France; one, of which England has no idea. In general, it does not enter the mind of the English legislator that the transactions of individuals can be subjected to a systematic classification, and still less that they must be carried on in accordance with certain invariable for-

mulæ. His foresight is not exhibited in tracing a circle for the limitation of individual action; in regulating all its movements, and establishing the bounds beyond which it shall not be permitted to exert itself. Whatever may be its other defects, and they are numerous, the English law is in so far wise, that it leaves some opportunity for the exercise of individual energy and prudence, and that it respects the freedom of contracts too much to attempt to prescribe regulations for their formation. In no part of it do we find any one form of association to have a preference, or to be recognized to the prejudice of any other. It foresees none, while it recognizes all, disposed to accept every combination to which the mind can give birth, provided it contains in it nothing contrary to public order, or prejudicial to the rights of third parties. It is certainly true that English associations are divided into two classes, perfectly distinct; ordinary associations, or partnerships, and corporations, or incorporated bodies. This distinction has, however, an entirely different sense from that which we should attribute to it, judging it by analogy to the French system. It is not in this case a question of the particular forms of association, for ordinary partnership has no invariable form: they are institutions of different orders. The fact which establishes between them a fundamental distinction, is, that ordinary partnerships are governed by the commercial or civil law, and fall within the domain of private jurisdiction, while the others have relation to the sovereign authority from which they emanate, and are within the elevated sphere of the public law.*

In France, where the soil has been, in a measure, levelled by the Revolution, and where all traces of ancient institutions are effaced, there exists but one law—one jurisdiction; the ordinary law and the ordinary jurisdiction. The public jurisdiction has disappeared with public institutions. This expression, even of "public jurisdiction," would no longer have any sense or value with us, if a new public jurisdiction had not sprung up in the constitutional sphere. Henceforth, it is there only that it is to be found. In England, on the contrary, where a great number of institutions, the remains of past ages, have been perpetuated to our day, we find still subsisting a public jurisdiction of a very complicated character, not confining itself to the constitutional sphere, but extending itself over all those institutions of the second order, which are spread over the surface of the soil. It comprehends, in general, everything of a political character or value; everything which has escaped the common law; everything which does not fall within the immediate impression of the civil jurisdiction—from the king and the parliament, down to municipal corporations and churchwardens. Connected with it, in fact, are almost all privileges; for privileges are not always in England, as in France, mere exceptions from the common law. They are clothed with the character of institutions, and thus are allies to the mass of facts which the public law includes. It is within this very order of facts that incorporated

* It will be obvious to the reader that the author has in this and subsequent portions of this paper, attributed to the English corporations a higher position than they are entitled to occupy. The railroad and canal companies of England are private corporations, subject to the common law, like our own. In some cases, in both countries, they enjoy monopolies, as in those of the Camden and Amboy Railroad Company, and the Bank of England; but, in general, the right of suing and being sued as a corporation, and exemption from liability of the shareholders, are the chief differences between them and private partnerships.—[*Translator.*

societies are comprehended. One thus understands readily that they are rather public institutions than commercial associations. Ordinary partnerships are commercial in the strictest sense of the term: that is to say, they enjoy no privileges, but are in all respects subject to the rules of the common law, and it is therein that they are distinguished from the corporations; but they are subjected to none of those restrictions that are found in our code. This appellation is not applied to any particular form of association, but to all, whatever their form and character, formed between individuals, under the operation of the common law.

For the present, we will leave the incorporated companies, of which we shall have, hereafter, much to say. In their form, as well as in the exemption from liability of their members, they resemble our *societes anonymes*, but by reason of the principles upon which they are based, the power they enjoy, the authority with which they are invested, and still more, the character of the institutions themselves, they occupy a much more elevated sphere of action. It is by this title of public institutions that they partake of the sovereign power, of which they are an emanation. Leaving out of view establishments like these, exceptional in their character, we shall see that the common partnerships constitute in themselves a complete system.

Nothing can be more simple than the law in relation to them. Far different from ours, in which the various classes of associations are divided from each other, and strictly defined, and by which each is subjected to regulations peculiar to itself, accompanied with endless formalities, the English law makes no distinctions. All are subject to the same law, which is free from complication. So perfect is its simplicity that we can scarcely offer an analysis of it, and we can do little more than submit to our readers a view of the manner in which it is carried into practice, with some remarks upon it, as opposed to the more complex system of France.*

Strictly speaking, there is no law in England for the regulation of commercial association. It is there regarded as a contract, free in its nature, with the form of which the law has nothing to do; and here they differ widely from us, who are accustomed to feel ourselves constantly obliged to follow blindly in the path marked out by the legislator, always directed and restrained by the regulations which he has imposed. Nevertheless, we have, even now, a shadowing out of the same system, weak it is true, but sufficiently true to the original, in our *societes en participation*, which enjoy perfect freedom, without, to our knowledge, the smallest disadvantage resulting therefrom.

In England, an association is formed and established as soon as the contracting parties have come to an agreement. Their consent, be it expressed as it may, is sufficient. The moment that two or more persons have come to an understanding as to the conditions of the association, have distributed the parts, and have arranged the course of action, the

* The author seems not to be aware of the difficulties that have attended the attempt to apply the partnership laws to the joint-stock system of banking. They have been so great as to have rendered parliamentary interference absolutely necessary. When the same person combines in his person the two characters of partner, creditor and debtor, the relations become very complex. It is impossible to look at the various complications of the English system without a feeling of surprise that the simple form, so universal in New England, by which all such difficulties are avoided, should not be adopted.—[*Translator.*

business may begin, as the parties have done all that is required of them. There is no forced publication of the names for the information of the public; no proclamation of the terms; nor even, perhaps, of the existence of the contract. If they suppose that publication will be useful to themselves, by enabling the association to avail itself of their joint credit, it rests with them to determine the fact, and it is not to be doubted, that in a multitude of cases publicity will be sought by them with that view; but as it is entirely voluntary, there is nothing to prevent them from dispensing with it when they see fit so to do. As a consequence of this, there exist constantly in England associations for the purposes of trade, the formation of which has been so quiet, and their course so unattended with noise, that the public are likely to, and very frequently do, remain ignorant of their existence during its whole period.

Established without useless ceremony, and without expense, there is, nevertheless, no difficulty in proving their existence. Every species of evidence tending thereto is receivable in a court of justice, from the sealed contract to the letters, the books, and even verbal testimony; and here we may remark that the law of England generally leaves to the parties concerned the choice of the mode of proving the facts that it imports them to establish, requiring only that they be fully proved, without regard to the kind of evidence, whereas the French law requires, except in affairs of the most insignificant character, the most formal and regular documentary proofs.

The same facilities exist in relation to the division of the capital into shares. In France this is permitted to the *societe anonyme* and the limited partnership, while denied to the common partnership; whereas, in England, it is allowed in any case, the law being silent in regard to it. It is regarded as the exercise of a natural right, derived from that of association, and, therefore, not requiring to be referred to. Whenever one or more persons unite for the transaction of any species of business on joint account, it rests with them to determine the amount which each is to furnish, and the relation that the several parts are to bear to each other and to the whole. Here we have the division of capital, from which point to a division into transferable shares is but a step, and no principle of law marks the interval. Why, for example, instead of receiving the unequal and irregular contributions which it may please the several parties to bring into the concern, should they not have a right to determine, *a priori*, upon a division of the capital into aliquot parts, of which each member should be at liberty to take such number as he might deem advantageous? We can see in this nothing but a different, and a better, mode of proportioning the contributions. It is far more convenient, as the contributors can more readily understand their relations to each other, and those of each to the whole mass; an advantage by no means unimportant, when it is desired to interest a large number of persons of different conditions of life. While it thus simplifies the relation of the parties, it diminishes labor by facilitating the division of profit and the transfer of shares; but be the advantages what they may, it is difficult to see with what reason the law can undertake to interfere with so natural a proceeding.

Fully considered, the system of shares is nothing but the adoption of a unit in the formation of a large trading capital, and the advantage which results from it, in this case, is similar to that we derive from the adoption

of a unit of weight, or of measure; of the *metre* for distances, the *kilogramme* for weights, and the *franc* for money. Useless when applied on a small scale, it is almost indispensable for large associations. What then is there in it that should require the interference of the legislator? Certainly nothing! Such has been the sagacious conclusion of the legislators of England, who have regarded joint-stock companies as only an extension of the ordinary partnership, and if they have at times promulgated any regulations in regard to them, they have had less reference to the division of the capital than to the number of partners associated.*

There yet remain to be considered, in regard to the action of these associations, several questions of a different kind: as, for instance, the title by which the shares should be held, and the mode of transfer; whether they should be in the names of the several partners, and transferable on the books of the company, or held by the bearer, and transferable by delivery; but these are not fundamental matters. In regard to these, we think it could readily be shown that the best course would be, to leave to the associations themselves the most perfect freedom of action, contenting ourselves with the punishment of fraud when it shall be proved to exist.

While thus regardless of forms, we find the English law in an equal degree strict and rigorous in regard to all that concerns the duties of the association towards third parties. In that, as elsewhere, there is but a single principle, applicable to all trading associations—that of the unlimited liability of all the members. From the moment that a man becomes interested in the advantages to be derived from an undertaking, he becomes responsible, body and goods, for the payment of all the debts; and this, although his participation in the profits is limited to the same proportion which his contribution bore to the whole capital—though he takes no part of the management of its affairs—and though his name is entirely unknown to any of the parties trading with the company. If it be proved by his acts, or by oral testimony—by the books, or the correspondence—that he has been entitled to any share of the profit, however minute, it is sufficient to involve him in an unlimited responsibility.

Here the English law appears to us not only rigorous, but unjust. It violates one of the first principles of law, which is, "that no man shall be held liable beyond his contract." The French law, which says that in the case of a limited partnership the special partner shall not be held liable beyond the amount of capital that he engaged to contribute, establishes no exception in his favor, but is only a provision for the execution of the contract according to its terms, and is, therefore, in perfect harmony with the principles of law, while nothing can be more opposed thereto than the English system.

This condition of unlimited liability has reference only to third parties, and can be invoked by them only in the single case of a dissolution of the company, in consequence of bankruptcy and ruin, as up to that time it is

* The system of England has not been always quite so liberal. Until recently there could be no association for Marine Insurance, as all policies effected by underwriters, having a joint interest, were void, and the sum so underwritten forfeited. The object of this restriction was to secure to certain incorporate companies a monopoly of the business. During a large portion of the last century, the formation of joint-stock companies, for any purpose, was prohibited, and the reason alleged therefor, was the same as now in France, the necessity for guarding the people against being seduced into unprofitable operations.—[*Translator.*

the association itself that is answerable for the performance of its engagements, to the entire exclusion of the members. This prospective liability does not prevent shareholders from making such arrangements among themselves as appear expedient: limiting the amount of the several contributions, as well as their share of the profits: excluding from all participation in the management the great mass of the associates: confiding to one, two, or three of their own number, the direction of its affairs, and the formation of its contracts: or, even abandoning this direction to agents, whether members or not: in one word, to give it that form which it seems to them best to adopt. If the principle of general liability should at some future time be invoked by third parties; if the association should unfortunately fail; so be it: but, in the meantime, it may constitute itself in such manner as best accords with the views and the intents of those concerned in its formation.

The risk of bankruptcy might be, in a certain degree, prevented by the parties themselves. It would be sufficient to stipulate that the association should be dissolved, and should discharge its debts, before its capital should be absorbed by losses; and it is by aid of such a clause, frequently resorted to in England, that the principle of unlimited responsibility is in some degree neutralized, and the parties protected from risk exceeding that of their subscribed capital. Coupled with such a provision, it is difficult to see what form such an association may not take, what description of combination shall be interdicted to it, or what difficulty can attend the formation of a limited partnership. Thus, a merchant, finding himself engaged in a business that he would wish to increase by aid of additional capital, applies to capitalists, or perhaps to other merchants, and induces them to take an interest in it. If he desired that they should associate their credit and their names with his own, and unite with him actively in the management of the concern, it would be a common partnership that he would establish, but such is not the case. All that he requires from them is the control of a certain amount of capital, in return for which he offers them a share of the profits of the operation, retaining himself the exclusive management. He alone is known to the creditor and the public, the others being only dormant partners. Can we see in this anything but a limited partnership? Is not the mode of proceeding identical therewith, and are not the positions of the several parties precisely the same, with the exception of an ultimate liability which has no effect as regards the present time? Such associations are very common in England, for though the further responsibility to which the partner is subject, is, in some respects, an obstacle, the facility which they afford in the formation of contracts, and which accords so well with the spirit of trade, is a powerful inducement to their formation. The persons who thus supply capital are called in England sleeping partners, a term quite as expressive as that of *commanditaire*, and possessing the advantage of being perfectly comprehensible to all the world; whereas, the other has no sense in our language other than that given to it by the law.

The proceedings in the case of formation of a *societe anonyme*, are equally simple. A certain number of merchants, or capitalists, come together, and arrange to unite with each other in the prosecution of an enterprise. They contribute, according to their respective means, or inclinations, to the formation of a joint capital. That done, the company receives a name designating the object of the association, excluding all

those of the associates; and agents are elected who are charged with its management. The directors, as well as most of the subordinate officers, are usually taken from among the shareholders, and even from among those who are most largely interested; but this is not obligatory upon the members, who are induced to this course chiefly by a desire to give themselves that additional guarantee for careful management. In most instances, the directors and officers are liable to change at will, although it is not unfrequently the case that after the election of the first board of directors, vacancies are filled by the directors themselves, and the mass of the shareholders exercise a further control. Even here, however, it is not the law that limits the power of the mass, but the contract of partnership which stands for law among the partners themselves, everything being left to their own arrangement. What further is required to place them in the same rank with our *societes anonymes?* They are known in England as joint-stock companies, which may be translated by *societes a fonds reunis*, and this appellation carries with it a perfect idea of the character of the association. It would apply well to our *societes anonymes*, which are truly associations of capitalists, and equally well to the incorporated companies of England, if the latter did not derive their name of corporation from the semi-political character which the law attributes to them. In fact, the joint-stock companies, the *societes anonymes*, and the corporations of England, with some privileges more or less, are in effect the same form of association, so true is it that the condition of limited or unlimited responsibility does not necessarily alter the nature of social combination.

We see, then, that in the existing state of her legislation, England practices, with a facility unknown to us, all the possible forms of association. Leaving out of view here incorporated companies,* more numerous and more powerful than our *societe anonymes*, there are found, among the ordinary associations, all the elements that we possess, and freedom of action, in addition. The three species recognized by the French law are there fully in use, and as their formation requires no intervention of the public authorities, it is attended with but little trouble or expense, and, consequently, associations of all descriptions are readily formed, to be dissolved when the necessity to which they owe their birth shall have ceased to exist. Can we be surprised to see this great principle attaining there a degree of development so far exceeding what is observed among ourselves?

VI.

We propose now to resume the consideration of the prohibition imposed upon the formation of *societes anonymes* without the previous sanction of the government. Having shown its disadvantages, we have now to enquire into the reasons alleged in its support.

* The number of incorporated companies formed for the sole purpose of works of public utility, was, in the beginning of 1836, eighty-three for the improving the navigation of rivers; one hundred and twenty-one for the construction of canals, and eighty for railroads; a number far greater than that of all the *societes anonymes* that existed at that time in France. What would it be if we were to add the numerous other companies formed for special objects, as the Bank of England, the East India Company, the South Sea Company, the famous Trinity House Corporation, the Dock Companies, the Insurance Companies, &c. As to banks, they are all, except those of England, Ireland, and Scotland, on the footing of joint-stock companies.

It is generally supposed that some such restriction is required, because of the absence of personal responsibility in the members of such an association, although a perusal of the discussions which preceded the adoption of the code, would satisfy the reader that this idea scarcely entered the thoughts of the legislator. The real reasons were—first, that it was a mode of association that was novel; second, that fraud might arise in the issuing of stock; and lastly, that there was no good reason why such companies should be better treated than banks had been.

It is not the first time that, novelty of form in an institution, trading or other, has served as an argument against it; whereas, another that has on its side age and the sanction of time, obtains, if for that reason alone, protection and toleration from the legislator. In the absence of merits of its own, or of any advantages likely to result from its continuance, he is content to look to its old titles, and its acquired rights, and it suffices to him to find them consecrated by immemorial possession, to induce him to become an advocate for their continuance; whereas, modern institutions, and more especially those of our own day, are objects of suspicion, simply because of their novelty, and he magnifies their disadvantages without giving himself an opportunity to understand and appreciate the benefits which may result from them. He is, therefore, always their opponent, and if he cannot absolutely prevent their establishment, he endeavors to suffocate them under the weight of the securities required. Such has been, in France, the fate of the admirable institution of banks, the commercial wonder of modern times; of that of the *societes anonymes;* as well as of numerous other useful innovations, moral and material. It is in the nature of political power to resist the introduction of those improvements which time brings with it, and in proportion as the society by which they are surrounded is enabled to act more or less strongly upon those by whom it is exercised, do they show themselves more or less imbued with the stationary or retrograde spirit, always, however, less disposed to second the hopes of the future, than to attach themselves to the relics of the past. All, therefore, that can be hoped from a government, after having established security in the enjoyment of person and property, in itself a vast service, and perhaps the only one that it should be called on to perform, is that it shall have some regard to the tendencies of society; that it shall accept the progress that is made, and conform its laws thereto; that it shall permit civilization to advance.

It is this natural antipathy of power to all innovation, and to progress, that is the chief cause of the rigor with which the *societe anonyme* has been treated. Its novelty has been its principal, if not its sole fault, the reasons that have been alleged against it, being, as we shall now proceed to show, entirely unworthy of the consideration that is given to them.

Perfect freedom in the establishment of *societes anonymes* might, say the authors of the code, afford opportunity for the fraudulent emission of stock: that is, shares might be created in companies formed with a view to the deception of the public. Nothing is more true; but of what description of trading associations might not the same be said? or which is it that affords less room for the issuing of engagements of doubtful character, whether in the form of bills, shares, or whatsoever other might be selected? On a careful examination, we shall see that abuses of this kind are much more readily prevented, or detected, in the proceedings of a large association, whose actions are public, than in those of individuals, which

are of smaller amount and therefore escape attention, and which, being always secret, can scarcely be reached by the action of the law; yet the restrictions upon the establishment of such institutions, it is attempted to justify by reasons that could not be deemed sufficient to warrant any interposition whatsoever in the case of individuals. There is, as we see, no attempt at limiting to the latter the use of credit, because there may exist doubts as to the solvency of many of those who issue their bills in exchange for either goods or money; yet the liability of the public to fraud, in this case, is far greater than in the other.

It is, however, said that individual traders are liable in their persons for the payment of their debts, while both managers and associates of a *compagnie anonyme* are exempt from all liability. There is much error in this view, for if the managers be not liable for debts contracted in the name of the association, they are very seriously so as regards the correctness of their proceedings in the issue of certificates of stock; and there is, perhaps, equal responsibility in the two cases, if it be not even greatest in the case of the *societe anonyme*. After the shares are apportioned, and the certificates issued according to the rules of the association, there may be trickery employed with a view to give them a fictitious value; the usual manœuvres of stock jobbers may be resorted to; but this is an abuse that the law cannot reach, and with which it can have no claim to interfere; one too, to which every species of merchandise is liable, as well as the shares of *compagnies anonymes*. Stock-jobbing is a species of leprosy which attaches itself to all descriptions of mercantile property, but more especially to those which, being new, have not yet acquired a fixed value; and thus it is that we see stock-jobbers almost universally seizing upon the shares of companies at their first emission. It is not peculiar to them: it is a general evil: and those who would proscribe everything that might afford occasion for it, would proscribe very many things, beginning with the government stocks. The previous authorization required in the case of these associations, appears to be a singular remedy against such an evil, and we find it difficult to conceive how it can tend to its prevention.

If the motive alleged by the authors of the code, and by which they allowed themselves to be misled, was thus trivial in its character, those that are now brought forward in support of the continuance of this restriction, are not of greater weight.

It is necessary, say they, that the interests of third parties should be protected, and the *societe anonyme* offering to those who trade with it no personal responsibility, it is right and just that the law should secure to them some sufficient guarantee, by thus requiring a previous enquiry and authorization. In all this, we can see only a confusion of ideas, and an abuse of words.

Let us remark, in the first place, that this absence of individual responsibility, which is one of the characteristics of the *societe anonyme* is not, whatever may be said to the contrary, by various writers, a privilege, or favor of the law, but a natural consequence of the formation of the association, and a just application of the true principles of law. The *societe anonyme* is an artificial person, personified in no individual, but represented in all its transactions with third parties, by agents of its selection. That these agents should be exempt from all responsibility in regard to third persons, and not liable to be compelled to pay with their own

means, debts contracted in good faith for account of the association, is only a simple application of the law of principal and agent. By what right should they be held responsible by the holder of a note? They have promised to pay him the amount of the notes, and if they have done so, they have performed their promise, and what more can be required of them? Suppose them, however, not to have been paid. Have the creditors any right to complain that the persons of the associates have escaped them, when they have not contracted with, nor had any regard to, those persons? They have traded with a collective being, called a company, and it is against that being that they have rights to exercise, and provided the law gives them their remedy against it, they have no claim for anything more. In this case, then, the irresponsibility of the parties results from the nature of things, and is but a just application of the principles of equity, which cannot be appealed to in justification of the reservations and restrictions of the law. We will now inquire if the practice under this rule is attended with the disadvantages apprehended from it.

That the *societe anonyme* offers to those who deal with it only a guarantee of capital, is perfectly true; but can we find, throughout the whole realm of trade, any person or persons, individual or associated, offering creditors any other, or better, guarantee? It is said, and constantly insisted upon, that the members of an ordinary partnership are personally liable; that the acting partner in a limited partnership, is equally so; that the same responsibility rests on every person trading for his private advantage; and that the members of the *societe anonyme* alone escape from it. Here is the great argument; but those who use it, deceive themselves strangely as to the value of the responsibility appealed to, and do not see that it is really nothing but an idle word. What is it that the creditor demands of his debtor? Nothing but the payment of what is due to him. He wants his money, and not his person. If in trading with him, he looks to his credit, his capacity, his morals, and his other personal qualities, he regards them simply as affording reason to believe that he will be paid, and thus it is at last only the money that he has in view. As to the debtor's body, he expects nothing from it, and if the law grants him, in case of non-payment, a right to pursue the person, it is assuredly not because he would desire as compensation for the loss of his debt a right of property therein, by means of which he should be permitted to pay himself in default of other modes of payment. When he has even taken the body, he is not permitted to retain it in prison, if the debtor is insolvent. What, then, is the object of the personal action that is permitted to him? It has no other than that of enabling him to reach the property of the party, when he would conceal it. It is to force an obstinate or dishonest debtor in his last entrenchments, to prevent him from withdrawing his property from the pursuit of his creditors, and to compel him to appropriate his whole means to the discharge of his debts, that the law has created the personal action which permits the arrest of the body. That is all, and this responsibility, about which so much is said, means nothing more. It is found in the *societe anonyme*, as well as elsewhere, and here even more perfect than in the case of the individual trader, for if the latter is liable to arrest when he conceals his property from his creditors, then a far more severe punishment awaits the manager of a company who conceals from the creditors any portion of its property. While the first is looked upon only as an obstinate debtor, for whom some apology may

perhaps be formed, the second is treated, and justly too, as a sharper and a scoundrel.

Laying aside all preconceived notions on the subject, and forgetting mere *words*, let us examine *things* as they are, and compare carefully these different situations. In doing so, we shall find that all trading establishments, in whatever manner constituted, and by whomsoever conducted, represent only, so far as third parties are concerned, a certain capital, and that in this respect the analogy between the *societe anonyme* and all other trading associations is complete. Nevertheless, this capital may be, according to circumstances, subject to very different conditions as regards third parties, being more or less accurately known to them, and more or less readily reached, or seized. We shall now see that in these respects all the advantages are on the side of the *societe anonyme*.

In the case of an individual trader, whose capital consists of his private fortune, no means are ordinarily afforded to ascertain what are its elements, or what is its extent, for he is not obliged to furnish any statement thereof, except in case of bankruptcy, the law requiring of him only that he shall keep an account of his daily operations. He may magnify it to the world, if he will, and he will find none that can contradict his assertions. The capital of the company is, on the contrary, known to the public, and the amount paid in on account of it recorded in the books. It does not always happen that the whole amount of the nominal capital is taken up; but, in such cases, the number of shares issued is registered, and is usually published; and even were the directors desirous of concealing it, they must still keep a record of what is done, and facts so recorded make their way to the public by a variety of channels. Thus, while third parties who trade with individuals scarcely ever know, except by approximation, and that even most vague and uncertain, what is the amount of capital responsible for the performance of contracts made with them, those who trade with a *societe anonyme* can obtain full information if they seek it, and perform their operations with a feeling of confidence that cannot exist in the other case.

Again, nothing is easier than for an individual trader to conceal the extent of his engagements, as no one can know it certainly but himself. His confidential clerk, even, may be ignorant of it, as the loans he finds himself compelled to make may not all be of a character to require that they be entered in his day-book. It is a secret confined to himself; one which transpires rarely, and always slowly; one which is unveiled only when the catastrophe has occurred. On the contrary, the *societe anonyme* neither can nor ought to borrow, without the fact becoming known to all the world—directors, clerks, shareholders, and the public. Its operations partake, in some respects, of the nature of those of governments. The light of day penetrates in every direction, and there can be no secrets from those who seek for information.

Thus all is fixed, recorded, known, of the capital and debts in the case of the *societe anonyme*, while all is uncertain and unknown in the case of the individual trader. Which of the two, we would ask the reader, presents the most favorable aspect, or the surest guarantee, to the view of those who trade with them?

Again, availing himself of the obscurity in which his affairs are shrouded, and which he desires to increase, the private trader is enabled, so long as his business appears prosperous, to produce impressions in regard

to his means far exceeding the reality, and thus to establish a credit not justified by those means. When losses occur and he sees himself threatened with bankruptcy, the world is still ignorant of his condition, and he finds himself enabled to contract debts far beyond the possibility of payment. The fatal day arrives, and the creditors find a debt much greater than had been anticipated, while the means of payment are as much less. Even this is not all. The same obscurity which has served him so well thus far, when desiring to magnify his capital and increase his credit, now affords him the opportunity of placing a part of that capital beyond the reach of his creditors. It becomes diminished, if not annihilated. It hides itself, and not even legal remedies, nor the activity of creditors can bring it forth from the dark corners in which it is placed; and thus are the parties doubly deceived. Our readers can readily determine for themselves, if practices of this kind are equally easy in the case of the *societe anonyme*. We do not doubt that such things are *possible*, but we think they will agree with us that from its nature, its organization, and the necessary publicity that attends all its actions, the liability to such occurrences is very greatly diminished.

View it in what light we may, we see, then, that the *societe anonyme* offers to the parties who trade with it, securities incomparably greater than those of individual traders, or of any other species of partnership. One objection, and one only, can be made to it, which is, that the fortunes of the managers not being so directly connected with its success, they are less interested in exercising the circumspection and prudence that are required for the avoidance of losses; but this is a vice inherent to associations, and one to which we took pains to invite the attention of the reader, when offering to him our views of the advantages to be derived from the principle of association. It is one, however, in the consideration of which the creditors are much less interested than the partners, or shareholders, and it rests with the latter to weigh it against the advantages which association offers to them. If, however, the managers are less interested in exerting themselves to avoid loss, they have, on the other hand, less interest in pushing matters to the last extremity when the concern is found to be in danger, and endeavoring, by ruinous expedients, to postpone the catastrophe; or, in case of bankruptcy, in diminishing, by fraudulent practices, the property of the creditors.

The results to which we have thus been conducted by reasoning, are fully confirmed by those of experience. The failures of associations have rarely been fatal to third parties; they have rarely ruined their creditors, although during the long series of disasters of which we have so recently seen the sorrowful spectacle, we have seen abundant evidence of their power to ruin shareholders and acting partners. All this is equally true of the *societes anonymes*, the limited partnerships, and even of those bastard associations, so ill conceived and so badly managed, of which we have before spoken. In the nature of things, it must be so, and the only question is between the different species of association. We think the reader will agree with us, that in the security afforded to creditors, the *societe anonyme* stands first.

We now repeat, and we do so under the strongest conviction of its truth, that the *societe anonyme* has been looked at with eyes distorted by prejudice. The novelty of the institution has been its crime. It is that which has induced the legislator to look upon it with suspicion, and to see

in its constitution disadvantages that have no existence. Give it age—were that possible: make it too old for our age, were it possible that it could ever become so: and all the doubt that it now awakens, will be removed: all the prejudices against it will be dissipated: and those even by whom it is now held in a sort of legal suspicion, will find themselves at a loss adequately to express their opinion of the perfect security which it offers, or sufficiently to magnify the advantages to result from its extensive adoption.

In comparing the systems of England and France, we find in each defects and advantages that are wanting in the other. The last is certainly most in accordance with the principles of equity, but the former is more liberal, and far better adapted to satisfy the wants of trade. It is impossible to define more accurately than is done in the French law, the rights and duties of the several classes of associates, or the parts which they may be required to perform. The English law, on the contrary, appears to us, in this respect, inconsiderate and unjust; imposing, as it does, similar duties upon those who do not enjoy similar rights, and creating obligations that would not naturally result from the acts of the parties themselves. It sanctions, in cases of bankruptcy, the most scandalous proceedings, such as no principle of equity would justify; and thus it is a matter of common occurrence, in England, to see creditors, like a pack of hungry hounds, put themselves on the track of a sleeping partner, to worry him, although they have never known him in the business, and avail themselves of commercial relations, of the existence of which they have been entirely ignorant, to create a responsibility to them upon which they never relied when making the contract—a proceeding opposed to every principle of equity and justice, and to the last degree immoral in its tendency. On the other hand, the law of England grants to those desiring to associate themselves together, great freedom in making their contract, and all possible facilities for the commencement and promotion of their enterprise; while, under that of France, they find themselves encumbered by useless forms, and suffocated under a weight of restrictions. Looking at their respective merits and defects, which should we select? If we are to judge by the results, this is certainly a question, the answer to which need not long remain in doubt; for, notwithstanding the great defects we have pointed out, the principle of association prospers in England, and its development is as regular as it is great; whereas it merely vegetates in France, and the occasional efforts that have been made to raise it from its state of languor, have always been attended with serious disorders. The violation of the true principles of law, in the one case, is an evil less serious than the excess of precaution in the other. It would seem as if the French law had been made by lawyers, clever men in their way, and rigorously observant of the principles of law, but too much disposed to insist upon the observance of forms, to which they had themselves been too long accustomed to be fully sensible of their weight; while that of England has come from the hands of statesmen, or men of business, less scrupulous as to the principles of law, but looking more to practical results.

It is not difficult to conceive of a system that should unite the merits of both, while exempt from the defects of either. Its principles may readily be deduced from what we have already submitted to the reader. They

were established long since, in the Rota of Genoa, whence it would be easy to take them.

When an association is formed under the name of one or more of its members, those alone whose names are used, should answer to the demands of third persons; because it is with them alone that contracts have been made. The rest is a domestic affair, with which third parties have nothing to do.

Which of the members should thus give their names and their responsibility? This is the business of the parties themselves to arrange, and it is one with which the public have nothing to do. It rests with the association to determine if the credit of one, combined with the capital of all, will suffice for the accomplishment of the end in view; or whether their united capital will be required. If they be of the latter opinion, we may safely rely upon their attention to making the fact known to the public. In the first case, as it is the single partner that gives name to the association, it is to him alone that third parties should apply, leaving him to make his own arrangements with his partners, in reference to the responsibility which he thus assumes.

If no persons be named, the third parties are perfectly aware that they are dealing with an abstract capital; and all that the law can reasonably require in such case is that the extent of that capital shall be fairly made known, and that, when called for, it shall be honestly produced.

Such are the principles—simple, but eternally just and true—to which, sooner or later, we must come. CH. COQUELIN.

The subject of association, as it exists in the United States, having been only slightly adverted to in the preceding pages, we think it may not be amiss to call the attention of the reader to the great differences, in this respect, that are observed in the different parts of the Union.

No where is association so little trammeled by regulations as in New England; the consequence of which is, that it is carried to a greater extent there, and particularly in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, than in any other part of the world. In those states, the soil is covered with *compagnies anonymes*—chartered companies—for almost every conceivable purpose. Every town is a corporation for the management of its roads, bridges, and schools; which are, therefore, under the direct control of those who pay for them, and are, consequently, well managed. Academies and churches, lyceums and libraries, saving fund societies and trust companies, exist in numbers proportioned to the wants of the people, and all are corporations. Every little district has its local bank, of a size to suit its wants, the stock of which is owned by the small capitalists of the neighborhood,* and managed by themselves; the consequence of which is, that, in no part of the world, is the system of banking so perfect—so little liable to vibration in the amount of loans—the necessary effect of which is, that in none is the value of property so little affected by changes in the amount or value of the currency resulting from the movements of *their own* banking institu-

* In the banking laws of both Massachusetts and Rhode Island, there are provisions in relation to a liability of the shareholders for the payment of their notes, in case of bankruptcy; but they are of such a character as to be of scarcely any importance, whatever. It is nearly impossible that they should ever become operative, and consequently they do little injury.

tions.* In the two states to which we have particularly referred, they are almost two hundred in number. Massachusetts, alone, offers to our view fifty-three insurance offices, of various forms, scattered throughout the state, and all incorporated. Factories are incorporated, and are owned in shares; and every one that has any part in the management of their concerns, from the purchase of the raw material to the sale of the manufactured article, is a part owner; while every one employed in them has a prospect of becoming one, by the use of prudence, exertion, and economy. All are, therefore, interested in the success of the concern; the consequence of which is, that the manufactures of New England are gradually superseding those of Great Britain, in the markets of the world. Charitable associations exist in large numbers, and all are incorporated. Fishing vessels are owned in shares by those who navigate them; and the sailors of a whaling ship depend, in a great degree, if not altogether, upon the success of the voyage, for their compensation. Every master of a vessel, trading in the Southern ocean, is a part owner; and the interest he possesses is a strong inducement to exertion and economy; by aid of which, the people of New England are rapidly driving out the competition of other nations for the trade of that part of the world.† Wherever settled, they exhibit the same tendency to combination of

* The following statement of one of their banks shows the manner in which the small institutions of New England are owned:—

Females,.....	2,438 shares.	Mariners,.....	434 shares.
Mechanics,.....	673 "	Merchants,.....	2,038 "
Farmers and laborers,.....	1,245 "	Traders,.....	191 "
Savings banks,.....	1,013 "	Lawyers,.....	377 "
Guardians,.....	630 "	Physicians,.....	336 "
Estates,.....	307 "	Clergymen,.....	220 "
Charitable institutions,.....	548 "		
Corporations and state,.....	157 "	Total,.....	11,045 shares.
Government officers,.....	438 "		

It would be difficult to imagine anything more democratic.

† In a recent work of Governor Grey, of South Australia, is the following passage:—

"No fact which I have met with has so much surprised me as the extraordinary diffusion of the American commerce, and the great spirit of enterprise manifested by them. In many places, where the British merchants can find no commerce apparently worth their attention, the Americans carry on a lucrative and prosperous trade; and, in half-civilized countries, where the largest profits are always realized, the Americans are so eminently successful, that the British merchant cannot attempt to compete with them.

"This appears to arise from the following circumstance:—The masters of the American vessels engaged in this kind of trade are, in many instances, whole, and, in all other instances, part, owners of the vessel and cargo; whereas masters of English vessels have frequently little or no interest in the vessel and cargo; and are, moreover, frequently tied down by directions from the firm for whom they act. The difference between these two cases is very great. The American can turn every circumstance that occurs to account; he can instantly enter into any speculation that holds out a prospect of success; and can act with rapidity and decision, on his own responsibility. The English master, on the contrary, has usually a prescribed line of duty to fulfil, from which he cannot vary." * * *

"While this port (Mombas, on the east coast of Africa,) was in the possession of the English, but one British merchant vessel arrived there, yet three American vessels entered the harbor. The master of the English vessel was not a part owner—the Americans were all part owners, and carried on a lucrative trade, shipping a large quantity of ivory; whereas the English master was placed in a very unpleasant position; for, owing to the orders he had received from his owners, he had not been able to ship a cargo suited to the market of Mombas; and if Lieut. Emery had not kindly cashed a bill for him, the speculation would have been a total failure."—(Journal of Expeditions in South Australia, by Captain G. Grey, Vol. 1, p. 279.)

action. In New York, they are the chief owners of the lines of packet ships, which are divided into shares, owned by the ship-builders, the merchants, the master, and the mates; which last generally acquire the means of becoming themselves masters, and to this is due their great success. The system is the most perfectly democratic of any in the world. It affords to every laborer, every sailor, every operative, male or female, the prospect of advancement; and its results are precisely such as we should have reason to expect. In no part of the world are talent, industry, and prudence, so certain to be largely rewarded.

In New York, which borrows its institutions mainly from New England, because of its proximity thereto, and of the vast number of Yankees among its citizens, there is much of the same tendency. There is a general banking law, but the right of associating, for the purposes of banking, has been fettered by restrictions, to which may fairly be traced the ruin of many of the institutions trading under it.* A general act of incorporation for manufacturing establishments exists, of which individuals avail themselves, whenever they deem it advantageous so to do. The system of limited partnership is found there, as well as in New England and Pennsylvania, and it has worked well everywhere.

In Pennsylvania, the right to trade in the form of the *compagnie anonyme*, or corporation, has been regarded as a privilege to be paid for; and bonuses have been demanded for charters, while special taxes have been imposed upon the dividends of all chartered companies. There has been no steadiness of action. Charters for small banks have been refused to flourishing towns and important sections of country, while granted in other cases for banks of a size disproportioned to the wants of the people —to the extent of five, and even thirty-five millions—whereas, in Massachusetts, scarcely any of them exceed a million; and they are large or small, in different parts of the state, as the wants of trade require. The results have been what might have been looked for from the course of action. In no part of the Union has banking been so much mismanaged. In none, has it been productive of less advantage to the shareholders, to whom the monopoly has been granted—or to the public. Manufacturing establishments exist, but generally on a small scale; because individual capital is not sufficient for the creation of large ones, and the legislature and the courts deny to individuals the right of contracting with the public as to the manner in which they will trade with each other. Manufactures, therefore, do not flourish, although the state abounds in iron and coal, and should be one of the greatest manufacturing districts in the world.

With every step we take, in passing south and southwest, we find a diminishing tendency to association on the part of the people, and an increasing tendency to the imposition of restrictions upon the exercise of the right of association, and upon the freedom of contracts. States borrow money with which to create large banks, and banking is made a monopoly for the supposed benefit of the whole people, instead of being thrown open to individuals, whose prudence and economy could render it profitable to themselves, and useful to the community. M. Coquelin has

* The general banking law of New York occupies twenty-seven closely printed pages, full of regulations. One page would contain all that is good; the remaining twenty-six being calculated only to do harm, and to render the system less advantageous to the community, by rendering it less free.

pointed out the disadvantage to a large company of the absence of the master's eye; and, if this exist in an association of one or two hundred persons, how much greater must be its extent—how infinitely greater must be the opportunity for mismanagement, negligence and fraud—when the owners are numbered by hundreds of thousands, if not millions? All this is fully exhibited in the course of the banks of Mississippi, Alabama, and Louisiana, where the attempt has resulted in almost universal ruin to the borrowers, and the loss to the states of a large portion of the capital. Throughout the south and southwest, factories are owned by individual capitalists, as in England; and those employed in them have no interest in their success, as they see no prospect of advancement. A careful examination of the systems of the several states can scarcely, we think, fail to result in convincing the reader of the advantage resulting from permitting men to determine among themselves the terms upon which they will associate, and allowing the associations that may be formed to contract with the public as to the terms upon which they will trade together, whether of the limited or unlimited liability of the partners. The greatest evidence of advancing civilization is to be found in the constantly increasing power of individuals over their own actions, and the constantly diminishing tendency to interference on the part of the state.

Art. II.—OREGON: THE CLAIM OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The object of this paper is to examine the claim of Great Britain to that part of the American continent known as Oregon territory. It will be necessary for the present to omit all examination of the rights of the United States; and we shall confine ourselves to a short exhibition of the character and value of the country in dispute, and then proceed to examine the grounds of the British claim.

Oregon extends from 42° to 50° 40′ north latitude. It is bounded north by the Russian possessions on the coast, and the British possessions in the interior; on the east by the Rocky mountains, which separate it from the acknowledged territory of the United States; on the south by Mexico, and on the west by the Pacific ocean. It is estimated that it contains 350,000 square miles, equal to 224,000,000 acres.

On the coast, for about 130 miles inland, the climate is mild and equal. There is seldom any snow or severe frosts, and farmers plough and sow in the winter. The nights are excessively cold, but otherwise the temperature resembles that of the middle states of the Union. It is rare to have any rain in June, July, or August, and but little from April to October. During the winter, rains are frequent. In 1833, the coldest winter known, for thirteen days in January, the thermometer averaged nineteen degrees above zero.

The climate between the California and Blue Mountains more nearly resembles that of New England; there is, however, much less snow, and cattle are usually able to graze the whole season. Even in this region, by the tenth of March, spring has so far advanced, that flowers are in blossom, and vegetation is full six weeks earlier than in the Atlantic states. The quantity of rain is much less than on the coast. The least desirable part of the country lies betwixt the Blue and Rocky mountains.

It is from 200 to 250 miles in width, and extends the whole length of the Oregon territory. The atmosphere is extremely dry; there being no dew, except in the vicinity of the mountains, and but little rain during a few days in the spring. The temperature is variable. The nights are cold, the days warm. The thermometer at sunrise is sometimes 18 degrees, and before evening at 80 or 90 degrees above zero.—(Mr. Wyeth's Memoir.) One general remark will apply to the whole, which is, that in each region, the mildness of the seasons is infinitely greater than in the corresponding latitudes and elevations in the valley of the Mississippi, or in the Atlantic states. In the mountain region even, when the highest peaks are covered with perpetual snows, the valleys at their feet are comparatively mild.—(Pilcher's Narrative.) Although the climate cannot be considered desirable as a whole, there is nothing which will materially retard its settlement, or prevent its becoming the rival of the Atlantic states.

The soil of Oregon is not uniform. The whole country is marked with volcanic action. The region between the California mountains and the Pacific, is best adapted to agriculture. The productions are wheat, barley, oats, rye, peas, and potatoes. Corn does not succeed, and with few exceptions, is an unprofitable crop. Some portions of the country are very fertile, and rival the best lands of the Mississippi valley; but these tracts are limited to the banks of the rivers.

The second division of Oregon, between the California and Blue ridges, is not well adapted for agricultural purposes; but as it is suited for grazing, it must become an important part of the country. With a moderate number of inhabitants, it will produce a great quantity of pork, beef, tallow, and hides, for export or domestic use. It is supposed that sheep will flourish as well here as in any part of the world. From the extreme healthiness of the climate, and the pursuits which the people will adopt, we may anticipate that it will become a distinguished portion of the country for intelligence, virtue, and political independence. Our knowledge of the region between the Rocky and Blue mountains, is not favorable to its speedy settlement, or its value for any of the principal pursuits of our citizens. The soil is so strongly impregnated with salts that it must remain for many centuries unfit for cultivation. A salt lake, called Youta, is situated in the south part of this valley, near the junction of the Snowy and Rocky mountains. Mr. Pilcher spent a year in the region of the Multonomah, Lewis and Clark's rivers, and found the valleys covered with the richest grasses. White clover, red clover, timothy and blue grass, were common, and among the spontaneous productions. Though the soil upon these rivers does not equal that of the Mississippi, it is superior to the cultivated parts of the Atlantic states.

Notwithstanding the many disadvantages of soil and climate, Oregon possesses commercial and manufacturing abilities far superior to those of any other section of the country. It is universally conceded that the water-power of the territory is unlimited. The rivers which rise in the Rocky Mountains, at an elevation of 5,000 to 10,000 feet above the sea, find their way across the country with extreme rapidity and power to the Pacific ocean. On all these streams, labor, enterprise and wealth, will establish various kinds of manufactures. Coal has been found, and minerals are supposed to be buried in the mountains. A large portion of the country, particularly on the coast, is covered with heavy and valuable tim-

ber. The pine, live oak, and white oak, grow to an extraordinary size, far surpassing any of the species in North America. This timber is not only valuable for fuel, but will be extensively used in building ships, houses, and for export to the countries washed by the Pacific.

The commercial advantages of this territory constitute its principal value. On the north and north-west are the Russian possessions, both of America and Asia, extending over 90 degrees of longitude, and from 10 to 20 degrees of latitude; on the south are California, Mexico, and the extensive coast of South America; on the west, and comparatively near, are China and the populous regions known as the East Indies. When Oregon is settled, as it will be, by American citizens, her ships will visit all these ports for commercial purposes. Among her commercial resources are furs, lumber, beef, hides, tallow and grain, to omit entirely those articles of traffic which American enterprise and ingenuity will ultimately produce in great quantities. Furs always meet a ready sale in China and many parts of the East; lumber sells at a high price in the islands of the Pacific, and in various sections of Asia and America; flour, beef, hides and tallow, can be sent to almost any section of the world. Many of these articles commanded a high price last year. On the Willamet river, beef was worth $6 00 per hundred, flour $4 00 per bbl., pork $12 50 per bbl., lard, butter and cheese, 20 cents per pound.—(Letter from an emigrant.) A century will be sufficient to place the commerce of Oregon in a respectable position. Should the jurisdiction of the United States be extended over the territory west of the Rocky mountains, emigration will be encouraged, and the authority of the government will essentially aid in rendering the Pacific the rival of the Atlantic.

The great difficulty, in a commercial aspect, is the want of good harbors. The mouth of the Columbia river affords a tolerable shelter for vessels, but the entrance is difficult and dangerous. When Capt. Gray discovered the river, he was unable to enter it for nine days, though he made great exertions to do so. Various plans for the improvement of the harbor have been made, and the settlement of the country will lead to a partial or complete removal of the difficulties. As the Columbia has its head in the remote parts of the territory, and, for a long time, at least, must be the principal channel of communication with the coast, it is important that every obstacle should be overcome. There are no harbors of any value south of the Columbia. North of the Columbia are Bullfinch or Gray's harbor, Nootka sound, and numerous bays, sounds and inlets, upon the strait of Fuca, Princess Royal, and Queen Charlotte's islands, which will afford secure shelters for vessels of any size. Hence the importance of securing this portion of the coast in the adjustment of the boundary with Great Britain.

The possession of Oregon will enable the United States to increase and strengthen their naval as well as commercial power. There are few places which will afford greater facilities for ship building, than the coasts of this country. The pines of the Columbia rival the sycamores of the Mississippi, while the live and white oak are superior to the same species in the Atlantic states. Of course, one of the first measures of our government should be to establish a naval station, for the repair of trading vessels, as well as those employed in the protection of our commerce. The mouth of the Columbia could easily be made the depot for the trade of the whole Eastern continent. After the establishment of a naval station, the

next essential requisite is a safe and expeditious mode of communication betwixt the Pacific and the valley of the Mississippi.

By this arrangement, our merchants would obtain information from all parts of the Pacific coast in advance of those of any other nation. A knowledge of the European markets could be conveyed more expeditiously via the United States to China, than by any other route. So, on the other hand, we should obtain the earliest information, as well from all Asia and the eastern coast of South America, as from China and Oregon. Our trading vessels fitted out at the Columbia, could traverse the ocean in every direction, and search for new markets and new articles of traffic at every post on both continents from Beering's strait to cape Horn. In the absence of the means of transporting heavy merchandise across the continent, vessels would ply regularly between the extremities of the American territory. The possession of Oregon secures to the United States the control of the commerce of the world, and enables them to contend, even-handed, with Great Britain for the supremacy of the seas.

This territory is necessary to the United States, as it furnishes both security at home and power abroad, while it will add neither power nor strength to our rival. But, whatever may be the advantages or disadvantages of the territory to either party, the controversy should be settled upon principles which will commend themselves to the civilized world. Oregon would be of little value, if acquired at the expense of honor, of justice, or of national faith. But the examination we have made, has most fully convinced us of the injustice of the British claim.

England sustains her claim to Oregon in three forms.

1. Francis Drake discovered and took possession of it in 1579.
2. Captain Cook visited and took possession of Nootka Sound in 1778.
3. Spain surrendered Nootka Sound to England by the Convention signed at the Escurial, in October, 1790.

The validity of the English title, as derived from the discoveries of Francis Drake, will first be considered.

He sailed from Plymouth, England, on the 30th of December, 1577, and returned on the 16th of September, 1586.

The expedition was openly planned for a voyage to Egypt, but secretly and truly as a piratical crusade against the Spanish upon the eastern and western coasts of South America. The principal object was plunder; discovery, exploration and settlement, were no part of the original plan.

Neither Drake's nor Cavendish's voyage was intended for making any useful settlements in those remote parts for the benefit of commerce, as most certainly they might easily have done; but their principal aim was privateering against, and pillaging the Spaniards, together with some transient commerce.—(Anderson. Holmn's Annals, I, 107.) This is apparent from the journal of the voyage. Drake sacked the city of St. Jago, and took a Spanish prize. The booty amounted to 37,000 Spanish ducats. At Tarapaxa, a party of his men robbed a sleeping Spaniard of 18 bars of silver, valued at 4,000 Spanish ducats. The journalist says, "they did not see fit to disturb the Spaniard's repose, but taking the silver, let him take out his nap." "Not far from hence, going ashore for water, they met a Spaniard driving eight Peruvian sheep, having two leather bags (containing about fifty pounds each) on his back. They delivered the poor animals from their unknown burdens, and lodged the bags in their own ships."—(Harris Voyages. I. 17.) At Lima, he robbed twelve

ships of great quantities of gold and silver. Soon after, he took the Cacafrego, which had on board thirteen chests full of rials of plate, eighty pounds of pure gold, a good quantity of jewels, and twenty-six tons of silver bars.—(Harris's Voyages.)

These facts sufficiently demonstrate the character of Drake, and the object of the expedition. The estimated fruits of the voyage were sufficient to exempt the nation from taxes for seven years. On his return, he was styled the master thief of the unknown world.—(Harris.)

Queen Elizabeth hesitated to adopt Drake and his voyage. The Spanish agent, Mendoza, remonstrated with the British government upon the illegality and injustice of the whole affair, but was silenced from time to time by partial returns of the wealth which Drake had accumulated. A portion of the people were sensible of the enormities of his crimes, and apprehensive that the Spanish government would seek redress by retaliation upon British merchants in Spain. They contended, that, as there was no war proclaimed against Spain, it was a dangerous thing to own such an adventurer, as the public might pay dear for the prizes he had taken. As their merchants had great effects in Spain, the Spanish government might make good Drake's depredations with their effects.—(Harris.) From the admitted fact that Elizabeth did make some restitution to Spain for Drake's outrages upon her rights and the laws of nations, we are at liberty to infer that the restitution was deemed satisfactory, and that Elizabeth shared the plunder with the thief of the unknown world.

Without having followed Drake to the field of his pretended discoveries, we may well object to the doctrine which England now for the first time advances, that she can base a claim to a continent upon the act of a pirate, who, for his own safety avoided the abodes of civilized men. After this claim has been in abeyance for two centuries, we must the more earnestly object, in behalf of civilization and christianity against England adopting an enterprise which she dare not defend in the lifetime of its author. And if it could be proved that Spain was conciliated, neither the United States nor any other government is bound to listen to pretensions which are based upon the violation of national laws and moral obligations. Our government would be justified in declaring to Great Britain that she must relieve Sir Francis Drake from the charge of piracy, before any claim resulting from his discoveries will be admitted by us. There is, however, no danger in allowing every possible advantage she can derive from the voyage of Drake.

After the outrages to which we have referred, a sense of guilt and danger seems to have seized the desperado, and he determined to reach England by the Molucca islands, rather than trust himself in the path of the Spaniards. Leaving the region of the equator, he sailed north in search of a favorable wind for his voyage across the Pacific. The first account of the voyage, published in 1589, states that Drake sailed north 600 leagues, which was all the way they made from April 16, to June 3; but Rev. Francis Fletcher, chaplain, says that between the same dates they sailed 1,400 leagues, and reched the 42d degree of latitude. He further says that from June 3d to June 5th, they sailed from 42° to 48°, but were forced by contrary winds to run in with the shore, and cast anchor in a bad bay in latitude 48°.—(Harris's Voyages.)

They left this harbor on the same day, June 5th, and on the 17th of the same month, came to anchor in a fit harbor, in latitude 38° 30'.

(Harris's Voyages, II. 196.) Now, according to this story, Drake made six degrees, with contrary winds, in ten days, while with favorable winds on his return, he made but nine degrees and thirty minutes in twelve days. This statement contains the evidence of its own falsity, and were it not for other circumstances, we might resort to the charitable inference that the writer was deceived by imperfect instruments and the uncertainty of observations made at sea. The account by Hakluyt is very different. "June 5, being got into 43° of north latitude, they found the air excessively cold; and the further they went, the severity of the weather was more intolerable; upon which score they made toward the land, till they came into 38° north latitude, under which height of the pole they found a very good bay, and had a favorable wind to enter the same." No further evidence is needed to show the entire inaccuracy of the chaplain's narrative, yet we feel justified in referring to another part of it. He represents the cold in the month of June, at latitude 38° north, as so great that "the poor birds and fowls, not daring (as we had great experience to observe) so much as once to rise from their nests after the first egg laid, till it, with all the rest be hatched, and brought to some strength of nature able to help itself; only this recompense has nature afforded them, that the heat of their own bodies being exceeding great, it perfecteth the creature with great expedition, and in shorter time than is to be found in any other places. Some of our mariners in this voyage had formerly been at Wardhouse, in 72° of north latitude, who yet affirmed that they felt no such nipping cold there in the end of summer, when they departed thence, as they did in those hottest months of June and July." This story is so entirely at variance with the known facts, that the author of The Discoveries and and Settlements of the English in America,* directly impeaches it, though it is the basis of the claim which England now makes to the territory of Oregon. This writer says that in the original account of Candish's [Cavendish's] expedition in 1587, not one word is said of its being cold. Again, in Sir Francis Drake's voyage, printed by Hakluit, it is only said, "that in the latitude of 42° the men were extremely pinched with the cold." Yet the truth of the matter is, that the Spaniards had, thirty-seven years before, sailed along this coast to the height of 44°, as far as cape Mendocino; and that they afterward discovered cape Blanco, beyond that, which is a plain proof that the cold is not so intolerable as Mr. Fletcher would make it. Father Charlevoix makes no scruple of calling it a fabulous country, and from hence takes occasion to make some reflections upon Sir Francis Drake, which that gentleman did not at all deserve.—(Harris's Voyages, II. 197.) Mr. Fletcher's narrative is here very properly discredited by one of his own countrymen; and nothing but a determination to secure Oregon, would give currency to a statement which is not only destitute of probability and consistency, but is directly opposed to the first English account ever published.

When we see Rev. Francis Fletcher discredited in this way, and the English government relying upon him to sustain their claim to a portion of American soil, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that they are sensible of their own weakness, and seek to sustain themselves amid the uncertainty in which their own writers have involved the affair.

* Harris's Voyages, I. 197.

After the chaplain's friends have impeached his veracity, it requires a great deal of assurance to ask credit for those who served in other capacities.

If, however, any satisfactory conclusion can be drawn from the English writers, it is this. That Drake sailed as far north as the forty-second or forty-third degree; that, from contrary winds and the danger of an unknown coast, he turned to the south, and came to anchor in a good harbor, about latitude 38° north. This was either port Bedega, or port San Francisco, then both well known to the Spaniards. The American Atlas, from surveys by Holland and others, published by direction of Parliament, at London, in 1776, has this significant note.

"In lat. 38°, port Sir Francis Drake, not St. Francisco."

Monterey is placed on this map in latitude 36° north, and the route of Drake is represented as seven degrees farther north. Cape Fortune, 41° north; the Cabo de Fortunas of Ferrelo, is put down as discovered in 1542. Of course, this was a Spanish discovery, as the English do not pretend to have visited the coast for nearly forty years after this date. It may be well to remark that the atlas from Holland, and others, was published about the time of the departure of Captain Cook on his famous voyage of exploration and discovery, and doubtless contained the most authentic information in the possession of the English. Hence we esteem the statement that Drake's voyage terminated in latitude forty-three, as extremely valuable in refuting the pretension now made, that he penetrated to latitude forty-eight.

An old copy of Harris's Voyages also contains a map by Gman Bowen, geographer to his majesty, upon which the termination of Drake's voyage is fixed at latitude forty-three. The author of Drake's voyages, published in Harris's compilation of 1744, in estimating its advantages, says: "He proceeded farther north in America than the Spaniards themselves had done; that is, to the height of 38° north latitude, beyond which we know nothing with certainty to this day."

The opinion that he proceeded farther north than the Spaniards had done, is distinctly refuted by the best authorities, and particularly by "An account of the European Settlements in America," published in two volumes, at London, in 1757. In the description of New Mexico, the writer* says, "the famous peninsula of California is part, and far from an inconsiderable part of this country. It is a place finely situated for trade, and has a pearl fishery of great value. It was first discovered by the great conqueror of Mexico, Hernando Cortez. Our famous admiral and navigator, Sir Francis Drake landed there, and took possession of it in 1578; and he not only took possession, but obtained the best right in the world to the possession; the principal king having formally invested him with his principality. However, I do not find that we have thought of asserting that right since his time; but it may probably employ in some future time, the pens of those lawyers who dispute with words, what can only be decided by the sword, and will afford large matter upon the right of discovery, occupancy and settlement." (Vol. I. 238–39.) While the writer argues with sufficient force the validity of the English title, he also admits with great clearness that the country visited by Drake was discover-

* This work was published anonymously. A note on the title page of a copy in the Massachusetts Library, states that it was written by Burke.

ed by the Spaniards. Now it is a well established principle of national law, that the cession of territory by its aboriginal occupants, cannot operate against the original discoverers; but if the cession be made to them, it confirms and strengthens their title. The various writers who contend that Drake discovered the coast in latitude 48°, appear to derive their authority from Rev. Francis Fletcher; while the inconsistencies of this writer, as well as the more authentic account of Hakluyt unite in fixing the termination of Drake's voyage at latitude 43°, and the point of his settlement in latitude 38°.

Although we are bound to deny that any act of Drake entitled the British government to sovereignty at any point between the thirty-first and forty-third degrees, there is no danger in asserting that the claim should be urged against Mexico, which, by the treaty of 1818 with Spain, is in possession of the territory south of the forty-second degree, and not against the United States. But if it be contended that Fletcher's account is authentic, the British government must admit the whole of it; for it would be manifest injustice to admit a portion, and reject or impeach the remainder. Fletcher, in his narrative, from which we have made extracts, makes this statement in relation to the harbor in latitude 38° 30′. "And that the north and northwest winds are here constant in June and July, as the north wind is alone in August and September, we not only found it by our experience, but were fully confirmed in the opinion thereof, by continual observations of the Spaniards." From this, it is certain that the Spaniards had made continual observations at the place where Drake then was, and this they could not have done had they not frequently visited it. It therefore follows, that the English can derive no benefit from the single and chance visit of Drake to a country which was so well known to the Spaniards that they had made continual observations which were considered authentic by Fletcher himself. Thus it appears that the latitude of the bay is immaterial, as it was frequented by the Spaniards, and of course the English can make no claim against the United States or Mexico, the representatives of Spain in this matter.

In whatever view we place the voyage of Sir Francis Drake, it affords no ground for the claim which England now makes; on the other hand, the vigor and skill with which she urges it, lead to the conclusion that our rival feels the weakness of her position, and seeks support in a measure which she would otherwise scorn.

That the accounts of Drake's voyage, and particularly that of Rev. Francis Fletcher, are in a great degree fabulous, seems to be generally admitted. When Drake found that his piracies had involved the government in difficulty with Spain, it became necessary for him to conciliate queen Elizabeth. This he did partly by large contributions from his ill-got gains, and partly by representations that he had made important discoveries which would greatly benefit his country, and enable her to rival Spain in wealth, dominion, and naval power. Hence we have the particulars, by both Hakluyt and Fletcher, of the transfer by the Indians of all the territory between 38° and 43°. They state that the natives desired to make Drake king, and that the chief actually took "the illustrious crown of feathers from his own head," and placed it upon that of the admiral. It is further said that "the admiral accepted of the new offered dignity, as her majesty's representative, in her name and for her use; it being probable that from this donation, whether made in jest or earnest,

by these Indians, some real advantage might hereafter redound to the English nation and interests in those parts." It will be observed that the dignity was accepted in the name and for the use of her majesty, but the writer seems to be doubtful whether the Indians were in jest or earnest. The acquisition of such a territory was acceptable to Elizabeth, and hence her efforts to appease Spain, and save Drake from the condemnation of his countrymen.

But it should be remembered in estimating the importance of this affair,—admitting the account to be true,—that Drake was a pirate, and could not be such a representative of any civilized nation as to acquire territory or sovereignty. If England choose to employ banditti as her agents, she can do so; but neither Spain nor the United States is bound by their acts.

Nor does the acquisition of an Indian title give any right of territory or sovereignty against the claims of a third party. This principle has been universally adopted in the affairs of America. Should the United States purchase an Indian title in the valley of Hudson's Bay, Great Britain would not for one moment admit it. As we have seen by the account of Fletcher, the Spaniards were in possession, and of course an Indian title was of no value to any other nation. It will be remembered that the voyage of Drake was commenced in 1577, and he probably visited the American coast in the spring of 1579. The purpose is now to show in addition to the admissions of English writers already quoted, that the Spaniards had visited all that part of the coast which was really seen by Drake. In 1541, an exploring party under the direction of Antonio de Mendoza, viceroy of Mexico, went up the Colorado river, and from thence penetrated the country near the coast to the fortieth degree of latitude. In 1542, Cabrillo, a distinguished Portuguese navigator, in the service of Spain, examined the coast as far as the fortieth degree. Cabrillo died in the small island of San Bernardo in the thirty-fourth degree of latitude, and Bartolemé Ferrer or Ferrelo succeeded to the command of the expedition. He directed his course northward, and by the first of March, 1543, reached the forty-fourth degree of latitude. Navarette found from an examination of the journals of the voyage, that it terminated in latitude 43° north.—(Greenhow.) These expeditions, by land and sea, performed long before Drake saw the shores of Mexico, are of such a nature as to supersede entirely the claim of England. Nor can it be urged that because Spain neglected to establish permanent settlements in those regions, that she lost the rights acquired by discovery; for Great Britain did nothing more than Spain had before done, and it is a plain principle that the title of discovery is perfect and complete until it is impaired by actual possession and settlement. Spain was the real discoverer, and as England made no settlement, the title of Spain was not invalidated by the temporary residence of Drake. From these considerations, it seems proper to conclude that the voyage of Drake does not confer upon Great Britain any rights in Oregon; but, on the other hand, that the title of Spain as discoverer, is original and perfect. It will appear, that all the rights of Spain have been transferred to the United States, and that upon the point of early discovery, our claim is perfect as against Great Britain.

The success of Drake stimulated similar adventurers, the principal of whom was Sir Thomas Cavendish. He followed the course of Drake

with equal success; but his expedition is principally valuable as confirming the story of a Greek, Quan de Fuca, who stated to Michael Lock, English consul at Aleppo, that while in the service of Spain, he visited and explored the strait which bears his name. It is situated between the forty-eighth and forty-ninth degrees, and separates Juadra, or Vancouver's Island, from the main land. Lock states that he met the Greek at Venice, in April, 1596, and received from him the following declaration. That he was a native of Cephalonia, a mariner by profession, and for forty years a pilot in the service of Spain. That Spain was alarmed at the efforts of England to discover a north passage to the Pacific ocean, and sent three small vessels from Mexico to anticipate its rivals. The crimes of the captain defeated the object of the expedition. But in 1592, two small vessels, of which Fuca was pilot, sailed from Mexico in search of the straits of Asrian, which were then believed to connect the two seas. Between the forty-seventh and forty-eighth degrees of latitude, they entered a strait, and sailed therein more than twenty days, and found the land trending still sometimes northwest, and northeast, and north, and also east and southeastward, and very much broader sea there was at the said entrance, and that he passed by divers islands in that sailing.—(Cushing's Report.) This account was for a long time disbelieved, but subsequent voyages have so far confirmed it, as to leave no doubt that the pilot visited the waters which he describes. Fuca also states that he was robbed at Cape California by Captain Candish, Englishman, of sixty thousand ducats. Cavendish* mentions that a Greek pilot was found on board one of the Spanish ships.—(North American Review, Jan., 1839.) Fuca says that he passed through this strait to the open sea, so that he must have reached the fifty-first parallel of latitude. The Greek's story is so well confirmed by Cavendish, and the observations of modern mariners, that its authenticity is generally admitted. The close of the sixteenth century found the western coast of America entirely in the possession of Spain, England having failed to reach a single degree of latitude which had not before been visited.

There is abundant proof, that, during the first part of the seventeenth century, England did not consider the western coast of America a part of her territory. There is, however, one exception—the colonial charters—and these in due time will be considered. A map of the British empire in North America, by Samuel Dunn, mathematician, improved, from the surveys of Captain Carver, claims nothing west of the Mississippi. The sweeping clause asserts the right of Great Britain to the "reserved lands which contain all the countries comprehended between Apulaches, Ohio, and Mississippi.

A map of North America, by Eman Bowen, prepared in conformity with the definitive treaty concluded at Paris, 10th of February, 1763, claims nothing west of the Mississippi. A line is drawn near the forty-ninth degree of latitude, and marked "the southern boundary of Hudson's Bay Company's territories, settled by commissioners after the treaty of Utrecht." This line extends betwixt the eightieth and the one hundred and second degrees of west longitude. On the copy of this map in the Massachusetts library, a red line has been drawn over the river which connects Rainy Lake with the Lake of the Woods, and red stars

* The pronunciation according to Hon. C. Cushing, is *Candish*.

mark a line through the Lake of the Woods to its northern point, thence a straight red line, upon parallel 49° 15′ to the Mississippi river. It was not until many years after the treaty of 1765, that it was found that the Mississippi was not intersected by the forty-ninth parallel. Whether the forty-ninth degree was established as the boundary between the English and French possessions, agreeably to the treaty of Utrecht, cannot be determined. Bowen's map certainly authorizes the opinion that commissioners were appointed, and that they executed their trust. This opinion seems to have been general, and was entertained by the parties to the treaty of 1783 between Great Britain and the United States.

Mr. Cushing* expresses the conviction that the commissioners appointed under the third article of the treaty of Utrecht "adopted the forty-ninth parallel of latitude as the line of demarcation between the possessions of England and France, in that quarter, and west of the Mississippi," but Mr. Greenhow is clear that the treaty, in this respect, was not fulfilled.

A French map, by M. Philippe, published in 1769, shows that no line had then been adopted, which was regarded as fixing the limits of the French and English territories in America. But it is well known that commissioners were appointed to settle the boundaries of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, agreeably to the twelfth article of the treaty of Utrecht.—(Northwest Coast of North America, 216.)

The "Account of the European Settlements in America," from which an extract has already been made, thus describes the American possessions of England, Spain, France and Portugal. "All America is in the hands of four nations. The Spaniards, who, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest share. All that part of North America which comprises the isthmus of Mexico, and what lies beyond that towards the river Mississippi on the east, the Pacific ocean to the west and northwest; and they possess all South America, excepting Brazil, which lies between the mouth of the river Amazon and that of Plata, along the Atlantic ocean; this belongs to Portugal. That part of North America which the Spaniards have not, is divided between the English and French. The English have all the countries which encircle Hudson's Bay, and thence in a line, all along the eastern shore, to the thirtieth degree of north latitude. France claims all the country which lies between this and the Spanish settlements to the west, and secures an intercourse with them by the mouths of the Mississippi, the Mobile, and of the river St. Lawrence, which are the only avenues of navigation to this very extensive country."—(I. 199.) Had a line been established under the treaty of Utrecht, it is hardly possible that it should have escaped the notice of this writer. One point, however, is well established. In 1757, England acknowledged the soverignty of Spain to all the country between the Pacific ocean on the west and northwest, and the Mississippi river on the east. Nearly two centuries had elapsed since the voyage of Drake, and if England acquired any rights through that navigator, she was more tardy in asserting them, than was common in an age when the maritime nations of Europe were extending their jurisdiction by every means in their power.

We come now to consider the charter, or great patent of New Eng-

* House Documents. 101. 3d session, 25th Congress.

land, and to determine how far it impairs the claim of Great Britain to Oregon. The boundaries of New England are thus defined by king James.

We, therefore, of our special grace, mere motion, and certain knowledge, by the advice of the lords and others of our privy council, have, for us, our heirs and successors, granted, ordained and established, and in, and by these presents, do, for us, our heirs and successors, grant, ordain and establish, that all that circuit, continent, precincts, and limits, in America, lying and being in breadth from forty degrees of northerly latitude from the equinoctial line, to forty-eight degrees of the said northerly latitude, and in length, by all the breadth aforesaid, throughout the mainland, from sea to sea, with all the seas, rivers, islands, creeks, inlets, ports and havens, within the degrees, precincts, and limits of the said latitude and longitude, shall be the limits and bounds, and precincts of the said second colony."—(Charter and Laws of the Colony of New Plymouth, p. 3.) This charter is the most extraordinary to be found in American annals, and conferred upon forty persons the entire control of all the territory between the Atlantic and the Pacific, included within the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of latitude. It comprises nearly all the inhabited British possessions to the north of the United States, all New England, New York, half of New Jersey, nearly all Pennsylvania, and the whole of the country to the west of these states.—(Bancroft's History, I. 272.) It will be seen from this extract, as well as from some of the other colonial charters, that at the commencement of the seventeenth century, Great Britain asserted her authority to settle and govern the country on the Pacific, including a large portion of what is now known as Oregon territory. It is immaterial to the present inquiry whether this claim can be justified or not; neither shall we stop to examine the probable grounds upon which it was based. England cannot now plead that she had no rights on the Pacific. If she did wrong, she cannot now urge it, to save herself from any injury, or to exclude us from our rights. The United States could not urge this act against the claims of a third party, but they may urge it against Great Britain, without admitting or denying her original right to the territory included in the patent of New England. It being then established by the highest authority known to the British constitution, the act of the king himself, that in 1620 Great Britain claimed jurisdiction over that part of Oregon included betwixt the fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of latitude, it is proper to inquire whether she had exercised, or in any manner disposed of her sovereignty. The most important evidence upon this point is found in the seventh article of the definitive treaty of peace concluded between England and France, at Paris, February 10, 1763.

"In order to re-establish peace on solid and durable foundations, and to remove forever all subjects of dispute with regard to the limits of the British and French territories on the continent of America, it is agreed, that for the future, the confines between the dominions of his Britannic Majesty and those of his most Christian Majesty, in that part of the world, shall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the river Mississippi from its source to the river Iberville, and from thence, by a line drawn along the middle of this river and the lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain to the sea; and for this purpose the most Christian King, cedes in full right, and guarantees to his Britannic Majesty, the river and

port of Mobile," &c. It is clear, from this article, that the king of Great Britain relinquished to the French king all his claim to territory on the west side of the Mississippi, and the question arises, What was the claim of Great Britain? She cannot complain if we resort to her own acts for an answer. We find that in 1620, and at other times, she claimed to the Pacific ocean, and hence by ceding her claim to France, she relinquished all her title, whether of any value or not, to the country between the Mississippi and the Pacific. If she did not cede this to France, what did she cede? She had no better title to the country between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, than to that between the Rocky Mountains and the ocean.

If, then, the Mississippi was a line between the territories of the two governments, it was in this sense; that England should occupy between the Atlantic and the Mississippi, and the French between the Mississippi and the Pacific. The article was also a virtual agreement that neither would molest the other in the exercise of sovereign power within the territory respectively relinquished. It is certain that Great Britain so considered the mutual obligations of the parties; for in the treaty of 1783, she followed the boundary defined in the treaty of 1763, reserving nothing to herself on the west side of the Mississippi, which she would have done, had she supposed that her territory extended beyond that limit. Nor can it be contended, that as Spain was in possession of the Pacific coast, that Great Britain could not relinquish it to France. For if it were in possession of Spain, no aid whatever is afforded to Great Britain, for the United States are the representative of Spain as well as France. If the controversy were between Spain and the United States, we could not urge with much force the cession by England to France; for the question would arise whether England had a right to make the transfer; but in a controversy with Great Britain, it is to be presumed that she did only what she had a right to do. Neither nations nor individuals can take advantage of their own wrong.

By the treaty of 1803 with France, the United States possess all the right of that country on this continent; and Great Britain is bound to treat us as she would treat France, were that nation in possession of the country west of the Mississippi. Two points appear to be well established. Great Britain claimed Oregon in 1620, and relinquished in 1763.

Has she acquired any rights in that territory since the treaty of 1763? She claims that she has. First, by the voyage of Captain Cook, and second, by the convention of 1790 with Spain.

Before considering whether Cook's discoveries were such as entitle the discoverer to possession, it will be well to determine whether the coast of Oregon was open to England for any purpose whatever. To be sure, England was entirely unacquainted with the country or its value in 1763, yet it was as competent for her to relinquish it, as it would have been to have ceded any of her colonies on the Atlantic. In that act she disqualified herself for acquiring any territory west of the Mississippi. With equal justice she might have sent an expedition into the vast regions betwixt the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, and obtained them for herself. This, it is seen, would have been a flagrant violation of her faith pledged to France; and was it less so when she claimed the Columbia valley? Or, after the treaty of peace with the United States, she might have explored the country around lake Superior; but would this act have

given her any claim against her own treaty? There is, then, no injustice in maintaining that England could make no discovery west of the Mississippi, which would entitle her to sovereignty. If she have any rights in that region, she has acquired them by treaty. As, however, England claims by discovery, we are bound to examine her title.

The voyage of Captain Cook in 1776 is regarded as furnishing the basis of the English claims in this particular. This navigator sailed from Plymouth on the 12th of July, 1776, under directions to fall in with the coast of New Albion, in the forty-fifth degree of latitude. Then to sail nortward along the coast to the sixty-fifth degree, where he was to begin his examination in search of a passage to Baffin's or Buffin's bay. He was also instructed, "with the consent of the natives, to take possession in the name of the king of Great Britain, of convenient situations in such countries as he might discover, that had not been already discovered or visited by any other European Power." He was also particularly instructed to avoid giving any offence to Spain. In this voyage Cook saw cape Blanco and cape Flattery. The mouth of the Columbia, and the entrance to strait of Fuca, were passed unnoticed. At no time did he set foot upon, or in any proper manner take possession of, any part of Oregon. Near the parallel 49° 30′ he entered a spacious bay, to which he first gave the name of King George's Sound, but afterwards changed it to Nootka Sound. This bay is situated on the west side of Quadra, or Vancouver's Island, and Cook felt justified in claiming the discovery of it for Great Britain. Admitting, for the moment, that Cook was the discoverer of this bay, it is worth while to consider how far it gives to Great Britain a claim to the region in dispute. If our previous conclusions are correct, that Great Britain relinquished the right of discovery to the country west of the Mississippi, by the treaty of 1763, the possession of Nootka Sound would give no right to the territory south of 48°.

It is difficult to determine by bounds the right of discovery. It is usually conceded that possession of the mouth of a river gives a title to all the country drained by the stream and its tributaries. When settlements are made in an unoccupied country by two nations, it is customary to make the boundary midway. This rule was adopted by the United States and Russia in 1824. The occupation of the main land usually gives a title to the islands upon the coast. But if the discovery of Quadra or Vancouver's island gives a title to the main land, a new rule has certainly been introduced, which should be considered, before it is placed amongst the laws of nations. Now it is upon this absurd law, if law it can be called, that England claims the vast territory of Oregon as the fruit of the discovery of Quadra—an island separated by navigable waters from the main land. If it shall appear that Cook discovered Quadra, let England possess it, but it is our duty to steadily maintain that there is no resulting right to the continent. It would indeed be surprising, if the discoverer of an island but little more than one hundred miles in length, should be entitled to a tract of the continent exceeding 350,000 square miles in extent. But it appears that the Spanish have asserted, with great justice, that Captain Cook cannot maintain his claim to the discovery of Nootka, as not only the island, but the continent, both south and north, had been previously examined by their own navigators. Don Juan Parez sailed from San Blas, in January, 1774, in a corvette called the Santiago, under instructions to examine the coast from Monterey to the sixtieth de-

gree of latitude. In August, of the same year, he anchored in Nootka Sound, called by him San Lorenzo. Perez was the first European who visited this bay,* and it was not until four years after that Cook bestowed upon it its present name.† In 1775, an expedition sailed from San Blas, under the direction of Heceta, as commander, and Perez as ensign. They explored the coast to the fifty-eighth degree of latitude, and discovered the bay at the mouth of Columbia river. They called this bay Enpada de Heceta. Bodega and Maurelle proceeded in a schooner, against the opinion of Heceta, and having landed at port Remedios, in the fifty-seventh degree of north latitude, on the nineteenth of August, took formal possession of the country, in the name and for the use of the Spanish sovereign. They also examined the coast for many degrees with great minuteness. The visit of Perez to Nootka Sound is well authenticated; and Cook himself seems to have had a suspicion, before he took possession of the country, that the Spaniards had preceded him. He says that he saw spoons of Spanish manufacture, but indulged in the supposition that they had been transferred from those Indians who resided near the settlements. The natives exhibited other evidence of their acquaintance with the products and manners of Europeans.

All this was more apparent, when Colnet, commander of the English ship Argonaut, attempted to take possession of Nootka, in 1789. Upon his entrance into the sound, the Argonaut was boarded by a Spanish officer, and Colnet was informed that Martinez had already taken possession of the place in the name of Spain. Colnet was invited to present his papers, and in consequence of some difficulty, he was arrested by the Spanish commander, and immediately became insane. The vessel and crew were sent to San Blas, in Mexico. This act of Martinez, was the germ of a series of difficulties and negotiations, which resulted in the remarkable convention of 1790 between England and Spain. As, however, it is no part of the present purpose to give a history of transactions, except so far as they affect the title of the United States, we pass over these circumstances with great brevity. We only pause here long enough to draw attention to the fact that Perez, a Spanish navigator, discovered Nootka nearly four years before it was visited by Cook; that Spain followed the discovery by taking possession of it in 1789; and that it was not until the July following, that Colnet, as the representative of England, first appeared in these waters. The expedition of Cook fails in three important particulars to confer on Great Britain any title to Oregon.

1. By the treaty of 1763 with France, Great Britain relinquished all claim to territory west of the Mississippi, and of course waived the right of discovery in that region.

2. Nootka Sound is within an island, and its discovery could give no title to the continent from which it is separated by navigable waters.

3. The Spanish navigator, Don Juan Perez, discovered Nootka in August, 1774, and Captain Cook did not visit it until March, 1778.

The last and most important point is to be considered; the rights of

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* It is probable that he saw and entered the straits of Fuca.

† The American Atlas, from surveys by Holland and others, London, 1776, has this note. In latitude 49°, "Coast seen by the Spaniards in 1774." In latitude 55°, "Here the Spaniards saw several white and fair Indians, in 1774."

Great Britain under the convention of 1790. It is necessary to understand the causes which led to this arrangement betwixt England and Spain. It has already been remarked, that the two countries were rivals for the possession of Nootka Sound, and that Spain was successful, both as prior discoverer and occupant. However unpleasant this might have been to the English government, there was not one word of complaint on this point. The correspondence on the part of England does not contain an intimation that the right of sovereignty belonged to her.

As has been stated, Don Martinez, under the authority of Spain, took possession of Nootka Sound in 1789. And he also took into his custody two trading vessels, the Iphegenia and Northwest America, besides those sent under Colnet to take possession of Nootka Sound. Martinez undoubtedly acted upon the exploded doctrine, that not only the sovereignty, but the right of navigation and trade upon the coast of America, belonged to Spain, as well in those places which she had not visited as in those she had. This idea was derived from a treaty between Spain and Portugal, in 1495, by which Spain surrendered the right to visit India by the eastern route, and in return, was to possess exclusive control of every western passage. As will be seen, England claimed the right to navigate and trade in all those waters, and to occupy in her sovereign right any territory not previously in the possession of any other power. In the Nootka controversy, England demanded the right of trade and navigation, the right to make settlements in regions not occupied by Spain, and atonement for the insult which her flag had received at the hand of Martinez.

The king, in his communication to both houses of parliament, May 25th, 1790, says, "complaints were also made [by Spain] of the fisheries carried on by his majesty's subjects in the seas adjoining the Spanish continent, as being contrary to the rights of the crown of Spain. In consequence of this communication, a demand was immediately made, by his majesty's order, for adequate satisfaction, and for the restitution of the vessel, previous to any other discussion."—(Annual Register, 32, 285.) "This memorial* explains, in general, the grounds that gave rise to the present contest with Spain; but the precise point, to be determined before peace can be finally settled, is still involved in some obscurity. That some of the ships were seized, and others suffered to proceed to trade unmolested, is not easily to be accounted for on the principles of the treaties that now subsist between the two countries. By the last treaty of peace with Spain, a free trade and no search, was the *sine qua non* on which it was concluded."—(Annual Register, 32, 287.)

The British government, in its answer to Spain, says that it shall not act "against the just and acknowledged rights of Spain, but that they cannot at present accede to the pretensions of absolute sovereignty, commerce and navigation, which appeared to be the principal object of the memorials of the ambassador; and that the king of England considers it is a duty incumbent upon him to protect his subjects in the enjoyment of the right of continuing their fishery in the Pacific ocean."—(Annual Register, 32, 297.)

In this there is no obscurity. England protested against the pretension of Spain to absolute sovereignty—not at Nootka Sound—but upon the coast of America. The king of England does not say that he considered it his duty to maintain his sovereignty at Nootka, but "to protect his sub-

* The memorial of Lieutenant Mears to the Right Hon. W. Wyndham Grenville.

jects in the enjoyment of the right of continuing their fishery in the Pacific ocean." The answer of the English ambassador to the memorial of the Florida Blanca sets forth, in plain language, the claims of his government. "The restitution of the vessels—a full indemnification for the losses sustained by the parties injured—and, finally, satisfaction to the sovereign for the insult offered to his flag. So that it is evident that the actual demands of my court, far from containing any thing to prejudice the rights or the dignity of his catholic majesty, amount to no more, in fact, than what is constantly done by Great Britain herself, as well as every other maritime power, in similar circumstances."—(Annual Register, 32, 298.)

These extracts, the tenor of the correspondence between the governments, as well as the neglect of England to claim any right of sovereignty at Nootka, sufficiently prove that the controversy was confined to the pretensions of Spain to the exclusive navigation, trade and possession of the sea, coast and territory of the western part of North America.

It may be well here to remark, that as England claims Nootka by virtue of the convention of 1790, she necessarily relinquishes every prior claim. For if Nootka belonged to Britain previous to 1790, Spain could not cede it either to Britain or any other nation in 1790.

It now remains to be seen, whether the convention between England and Spain, signed at the Escurial, in October, 1790, was confined to the points noticed, or whether it gave to England the sovereignty of Nootka. It should be observed that a treaty which transfers territory must be plain and specific. There must be no ambiguity, no doubt; otherwise it is to be construed in favor of the grantor. No just rule, either of civil or national law, permits the transfer of rights, unless it be done in a direct and clear manner. Nothing is left to construction or inference. Now, if England acquired the sovereignty of Nootka Sound by the convention, she is bound to show a clear, specific and direct transfer of it. In this she fails—utterly and entirely fails. The convention of 1790 is silent upon the point. There is not even an intimation that the sovereignty of Nootka was in controversy. Were it not for cotemporaneous history, we might as well conjecture that the difficulties had occurred in San Francisco as in Nootka. But in fairness, it must be inferred, from the convention itself, that Spain did not surrender Nootka. The first article shows what was restored by Spain, and to whom it was restored; and there can be no doubt, either from a cursory or critical reading, that Great Britain did not receive either territory or sovereignty.

"It is agreed that the buildings and tracts of land situated on the northwest coast of the continent of North America, or on islands adjacent to that continent, of which the subjects of his Britannic Majesty were dispossessed, about the month of April, 1789, by a Spanish officer, shall be restored to the said British subjects."—(Annual Register, 32, 304.) Buildings and tracts of land, of which British subjects had been dispossessed, were to be restored to British subjects. It is a maxim that the sovereignty is in the king, and had this been restored or ceded, it is hardly probable that it would have been to British subjects. Nor is it claimed that the king had been dispossessed of jurisdiction, lands or buildings, but that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty had been dispossessed of "buildings and tracts of land." But it is sufficient that the restoration was to subjects, and this precludes the idea that jurisdiction was among the things

restored. It is worthy of notice that the article is confined to the restoration, and that there is no cession, either to king or subject.

The fact that the restoration of buildings and tracts of land to British subjects was provided for in the convention, proves that England neither had jurisdiction, nor acquired it in the instrument itself, for she would have had the power to have done justice to her subjects without the consent of Spain. Should a Spanish officer dispossess a British subject in Jamaica of his land, Great Britain might seek redress of Spain for the outrage, but she would hardly ask her consent to the restoration of the land. So, from the fact of restoration "to British subjects," we infer that Spain, both before and after the convention, in right, exercised jurisdiction at Nootka. From the statement of Mears of the transactions at Nootka, we learn that he purchased a spot of ground of Maquilla, a chief, and built a temporary habitation upon it.* These, in plain English, were to be restored to Mears.

The second article of the convention provided that, in case the subjects of either of the contracting parties had been forcibly dispossessed of lands, buildings, vessels, merchandise, or other property, subsequent to the month of April, 1789, the same should be restored, or a just compensation made therefor. Martinez arrived at Nootka in May, 1789, and, of course, it was optional with Spain to make restoration of the property, or to compensate the sufferers. The idea that England would have bartered her sovereignty at Nootka for a just compensation, is eminently absurd; and had Spain chosen this alternative, she might have entirely excluded the subjects of Great Britain, and yet maintained her faith inviolate.

The third article provided that the respective subjects of the contracting parties should not be disturbed or molested, either in navigation or carrying on their fisheries in the Pacific ocean, or in the South seas, or in landing on the coasts of those seas, in places not already occupied, for the purpose of carrying on their commerce with the natives of the country, or of making settlements there; the whole subject to the provisions of the three following articles. As Spain had previously claimed the exclusive right of settlement, navigation, fishing and trade in those parts of the world, this article opened those seas to the enterprise of Britain; but there is no transfer of territory, but only the acknowledgment of a right to make settlements in parts not already occupied. Nootka had been occupied by Spain more than a year.

The fourth article contained an agreement that England would not permit the navigation and fishery of its subjects to become a pretence for illicit commerce with the Spanish settlements; and hence they were not to navigate or fish within ten leagues of coasts already occupied by Spain.

The fifth article permitted free trade with those settlements which had been made since April, 1789. Spain took possession of Nootka in May, 1789, and, of course, England acquired the right to trade at this place.

It may then be asserted, that the convention contains no intimation of any cession of jurisdiction. The treaty of 1495, between Spain and Portugal, under a papal bull of the preceding year, by which Spain had the exclusive right of settlement, navigation, trade and territory on the western coast of America, was annulled.

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* Maquilla denied having sold any land to Mears. Ingraham and Gray say that Mears had no house.—(Greenhow, 214.)

The acquisitions of England were:—

1st. A right to make temporary settlements in the unoccupied parts of the Spanish territory.

2d. Free navigation.

3d. Free trade with all Spanish settlements made subsequent to April, 1789.

4th. The right of fishery at all parts of the sea not within ten leagues of the Spanish settlements.

5th. Restoration of the property taken by Martinez, or a just compensation therefor.

Such seems to have been the views of the administration when the Nootka convention was considered in Parliament. Lord Grenville, the secretary to whom Mears's memorial was addressed, claimed great advantage for the fisheries and fur trade, but said not one word of extended jurisdiction.

Mr. Pitt said: "We had before a right to the southern whale fishery, and a right to navigate and carry on fisheries in the Pacific ocean, and to trade on the coast of any part of North America. But that right had not only been acknowledged, but disputed and resisted; whereas, by the convention it was secured to us."—(Par. Debates, 47.)

Quadra and Vancouver, commissoners of Spain and England, met at Nootka, in 1792; and, for the first time, the position was taken, that the first article of the convention of 1790 required the surrender of the whole island. The commisioners separated without agreement. Spain never made any formal surrender of any part of the island to Great Britain.

As the object of this paper was to examine the pretension of Great Britain, the grounds upon which our own claim is based, have been almost entirely neglected. The pretensions of Great Britain seem to have no limit, but those natural obstacles which neither the power nor ingenuity of man has yet overcome. They are well illustrated by the statement of John Henry Pelly, Esq., chairman of the Hudson's Bay Company, before a committee of Parliament, in 1837. He said that the power of the company extended "all the way from the boundaries of Lower and Upper Canada, away to the North Pole, as far as the land goes, and from the Labrador coast all the way to the Pacific ocean."—(Report from the Select Committee on Aborigines, with the minutes of evidence, &c.)

Art. III.—BRITISH COMMERCIAL POLICY.

Perhaps, in a commercial point of view, one of the most important events that have taken place since the peace of 1815, has been the development of the permanent policy of the British government in relation to its commerce, as manifest in the modifications of the tariff proposed by the Premier in Parliament, on the 14th of March, last. Almost one of the first acts of the government, on the declaration of peace, was the modification of the famous "navigation act"—an act under which British commerce had struggled since the reign of the Stuarts—of whose oppressive government it formed a memento. The reciprocal treaty with the United States led to the extending of British trade, on favorable terms, with most of the nations of Europe. From that time to the present, the tendency

of British commercial policy has been to free trade. While other nations have sought in those old restraints, restrictions and special privileges, with which Britain formerly bound the enterprise of her people, the supposed causes of her greatness, English statesmen have silently sought to retain their supremacy, by removing shackles from trade, and, by so doing, to give the largest scope to the enterprise of her citizens. This course has been forced upon the government, in consequence of the great competition with which England has had to contend, since the field of Waterloo released the "bone and sinew" of Europe from warlike occupations, and supplanted martial glory with commercial ambition. When the French emperor, in 1812, rigorously excluded British goods from Europe, united under his sway, in order to cripple England, by destroying her commerce and trade, who would have anticipated that the bank, chartered by Napolean in 1805, would become the sole prop of British credit in 1839? Yet, such was the fact. In 1805, the bank of France, by indiscreet movements, had become embarrassed, when Napolean, leaving the half gathered glories of Austerlitz, hastened to Paris, and, re-organizing the bank, gave it a charter which not only carried it through all succeeding revolutions, but, when disease shook the commercial world, and the United States banking system having gone down in disgrace, the whole paper system of England tottered to its base, she could, in 1839, spare £4,000,000 to the bank of England, to carry her through the crisis. Thus the emperor, while wholly absorbed in the means of ruining English commerce, was providing the very means by which, in after years, through the influence of the common interests of all nations in each other's welfare, the mighty fabric alone should be sustained. A stronger instance of the unseen, all-pervading progress of the great principles of "free trade," in spite of the narrow prejudices, wire drawn theories, and impudent assumptions of selfish men, cannot be adduced. Almost the whole of the enormous expenditure of the British government, during the twenty years ending in 1815, was borne by the consumers of goods, rather than by the holders of property. Thus, of £71,372,515 raised by taxation in the year 1815, £21,618,123 only was obtained from direct taxes; whereas, in 1841, out of £48,895,863 paid into the exchequer, only £1,174,099 was the produce of assessed taxes. The whole expense of the enormous debt, wantonly contracted to oppose France, as well as the outlay of an expensive government, with its machinery to sustain an unproductive colonial system, have, during a period of forty-two years, been borne, not by the possessors of property, but by the laboring many, who constitute the consumers of goods. The direct effect of this system has been to diminish the value of labor and to enhance that of money. The effect of the immense debt of £800,000,000, which existed at the close of the last war, has been to draw directly from the laboring many £30,000,000 per annum into the hands of 290,000 holders of the stock. This, with the large sums drawn from the same sources, and applied to the support of the government, has been a direct draft upon the produce of labor, for the profit of capital. The working classes, out of their small earnings, have been obliged to give a large share to the government, at the same time that the money value of their labor has been continually diminishing under the constant competition from other nations. The only manner in which England has been enabled to maintain the markets for her goods in Europe, with the nations of which she stands on equal terms

in relation to the raw material, has been by cheapening her labor. This would scarcely have afforded a sufficient outlet for goods, but that the extension of her colonial markets has hitherto kept pace with her increased home productions. In 1792, England had twenty-two colonies, in 1820, thirty-four, and they had increased to forty-five in number in 1845; in addition to which, the forcing of the China trade has still further extended her field of action. It has been only by continually furnishing more labor for the same amount of money, that the market could be maintained, at the same time that the proceeds of that labor were taxed to support the whole debt and government. The amount of the drafts upon industrious earnings was not lessened, although the amount of those earnings was diminished through the necessity of cheapening the cost of goods to export. Another severe tax upon the earnings of industry, consisted in the protective duties on articles of necessity, more particularly corn, whereby the prices of the articles consumed were enhanced to the consumer for the benefit of the landlords. The taxes, per head, of the population of England, are about £2, or $9 68, amounting, for a family of five, to $47 80, as the actual amount of money paid to the government. The value of the corn and food consumed by such a family is enhanced £20, or $96 80, making, together, $144 60 per annum. This burden, up to 1842, was in no wise diminished, while the money value of labor had fallen some 40 per cent. The extent to which this depreciation of labor has progressed, may be approximated by comparing the official with the declared value of exports from Great Britain for a series of years. The official value was fixed in the seventeenth century, while the declared value is that of the actual invoices. Hence, the former displays simply quantities, while the latter gives the real value. The difference indicates the depreciation in money value which the products have undergone.

EXPORTS OF BRITISH GOODS IN OFFICIAL AND DECLARED VALUES, AND THE YEARLY AVERAGE PRICES OF WHEAT.

Years.	Official.	Declared.	Excess declared.	Exc's official.	Av. price of wheat per qr. s.	d.
1815,.....	£42,875,996	£51,603,028	£8,727,032	.....	63	8
1816,.....	35,717,070	41,657,873	5,940,863	.....	76	2
1817,.....	40,111,427	41,761,132	1,649,705	.....	94	0
1818,.....	42,700,521	46,603,249	3,902,728	.....	83	8
1819,.....	33,534,176	35,208,321	1,674,145	.....	72	3
1820,.....	38,395,625	36,424,652	.....	£1,970,973	65	10
1821,.....	40,831,744	36,659,630	.....	4,172,114	54	5
1822,.....	44,236,533	36,968,964	.....	7,267,569	43	3
1823,.....	43,804,372	35,458,048	.....	8,346,324	51	9
1824,.....	48,735,551	38,396,300	.....	10,349,251	62	0
1825,.....	47,166,020	38,877,388	.....	8,288,632	66	6
1826,.....	40,965,735	31,536,723	.....	9,429,012	56	11
1827,.....	52,219,280	37,181,355	.....	15,007,925	56	9
1828,.....	52,797,455	36,812,756	.....	15,984,699	60	5
1829,.....	56,213,041	35,842,623	.....	20,370,418	66	3
1830,.....	61,140,864	38,271,597	.....	22,869,267	64	3
1831,.....	60,683,933	37,164,372	.....	23,519,561	66	4
1832,.....	65,026,702	36,450,594	.....	28,576,108	58	8
1833,.....	69,989,339	39,667,347	.....	30,321,992	52	11
1834,.....	73,831,550	41,649,191	.....	32,182,359	46	2
1835,.....	78,376,731	47,372,270	.....	31,004,461	39	4
1836,.....	85,229,837	53,368,571	.....	31,861,266	48	6
1837,.....	72,548,047	49,069,945	.....	20,478,902	55	10

EXPORTS OF BRITISH GOODS, etc.—Continued.

Years.	Official.	Declared.	Excess declared.	Exc's official.	Av. price of wheat per qr.
					s. *d.*
1838,.....	£92,459,631	£50,060,970	.....	£42,398,261	64 7
1839,.....	97,402,726	53,233,580	.....	44,169,146	70 8
1840,.....	102,705,372	51,406,430	.....	51,298,942	66 4
1841,.....	102,180,517	51,634,623	.....	50,545,894	64 4
1842,.....	100,260,101	47,381,023	.....	52,879,078	60 2

The quantities exported, it appears, increased 150 per cent, while the value increased but 33 per cent. At the same money value as in 1815, the exports of 1842 should have been worth £91,061,640. Hence, the depreciation was near 50 per cent. The manner of this depreciation may be observed in any one article, say cotton yarn, as follows :—

Years.	Cotton yarn. lbs. exp'ted.	Official value.	Declared value.	Wages.	Price per lb. yarn.	Bowed cotton.
				s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
1814,....	12,782,354	£1,119,850	£2,791,247	13 0	4 4	2 6
1828,....	50,505,751	4,485,641	3,595,405	1 7½	1 5	7½
Incr.,.	37,723,397	£3,365,791	£804,158	.....	.....	.....
Decr.,	.....	.....	.....	11 3½	2 11	1 11½

It will be observed that the official value is £10 per cwt. The decline of money value is very great, being one shilling per pound of yarn more than the decline in the raw material. This decline of one shilling, is nearly all in the labor. The wages quoted are for weaving twelve yards of sixty reed 6-4th cambrics. Out of their wages as much had to be paid for food, and as much for taxes in 1828 as in 1814. It may be remarked, however, that the quotations for 1814 are in a depreciated paper currency, which was corrected by the act of 1819, commonly called "Peel's Bills." It was at that period that the excess of exports changed from the official to the declared value, showing that prices then receded to their natural level, from which they had been artificially raised by the extended irredeemable paper currency which prevailed during the war. The restoration of the currency was a wise and necessary act to preserve the trade of England, when the return of peace brought her prices in competition with the specie rates of the continent. The reduction in prices which has since taken place, has, by a certain class, been attributed to the restoration of the currency, when in fact it was the necessary result of the active competition to which British industry was exposed, through the advancing prosperity of continental manufactures. The same cause has produced a continued decline in money prices, notwithstanding that the British currency has occasionally been inflated to a dangerous extent. This decline has partly grown out of diminished prices of the raw materials, but mostly from grinding down the wages of industry until the pittance they earn will not suffice to pay for food, and sustain the government and its debt. Year by year the artizan, the miner, and the manufacturer has been compelled to give more labor for the same money, while the amount of money exacted of him has in no way been diminished. On the other hand, the property of the state creditors, the nobility, and the government officials, has been constantly increasing, in the same proportion. Every succeeding year, the amount of labor and the quantity of the products of industry, which they could command for the sum of their divi-

dends, have increased. In 1814, the price of 3 per cent consols was 58. They are now over par—an advance of 70 per cent on the then investment. Thus a person who invested £10,000 in consols in 1815, would have had a capital worth now £17,250, and his income of £300, measured in any product of industry, will present a much greater rise. Say bar iron in Liverpool, in 1814, was worth £13 per ton; consequently, the dividend of £300 was then equal to twenty-three tons, and it is now equal to 60 tons, an advance of 130 per cent. It requires nearly as much labor now to produce a ton of iron as then. The demand of the government, and of the protected interests upon the laborer for money, has been such that he has been compelled to give a great deal of labor to obtain it. The individuals who have received these enormous sums annually, have not been compelled to part with much of it to the government, and it has accumulated in their hands to an immense extent, indicated in the high prices of stocks.

The whole wealth of the kingdom appears, under the pernicious system of indirect taxes, to have passed into the hands of a very few persons; and so closely have the demands of government pressed upon the means of the greater proportion of the people, that an advance in the prices of the necessaries of life has been at once followed by a serious falling off in the indirect taxes, caused by the popular inability to purchase the taxed articles. This state of the country involved an annual deficiency in the government for six years, ending in 1843, as follows:—

EXCESS OF BRITISH EXPENDITURE OVER REVENUES.

1837,.....	£1,428,000	1840,.....	£1,851,000
1838,.....	430,000	1841,.....	2,334,000
1839,.....	1,457,000	1842,.....	2,570,000

This was a regular and increasing deficit for ten years, amounting to £10,072,000. This was produced, not by a diminution of taxes, but by diminished revenues arising from a smaller consumption of taxed articles. In order to supply this deficit, the government in 1840 levied a tax of 5 per cent additional to the existing customs and excise duties. The result of this was as follows:—

Produce of customs and excise for 1839,.....	£37,911,506
Estimated 5 per cent addition,.....	1,895,575
Total estimated yield,.....	£39,807,081
Actual revenue,.....	38,118,221
Actual increase, ½ per cent, instead of 5 per cent,.....	£206,715

Almost every consumable article was subject to taxes; and from this result it appears that no article would bear an increase of the levy. Under these circumstances, it became evident, as a mere matter of finance, that the system of the government should be changed, that property hitherto untouched, should bear its share of the government burdens; and it became indispensable to revive the income tax. This was done in the case of England and Scotland, but Ireland being without the necessary machinery for its collection, a duty upon stamps and spirits, as an equivalent, was imposed, and also an export duty upon English coals. The estimated revenues, and their application, were as follows:—

Increased Revenue.		Application.	
Income tax,.....	£3,700,000	Yearly deficit,.....	£2,570,000
Stamp duties,.....	160,000	Taxes reduced,.....	270,000
Spirit "	250,000	Coffee and timber do.,.....	770,000
Coal "	200,000	Export and coach do.,.....	170,000
Total,.....	£4,310,000	Total,.....	£3,780,000

The balance was appropriated to the increased India expenses. The results have more than borne out the estimates of the minister. The product of the tax has exceeded his estimates, and the removals of duties from articles of consumption have come greatly in aid of returning activity in trade, and including the income tax of £5,260,000, there is now a surplus revenue of £3,409,000. That is to say, the remissions of duties amounting to £1,210,000, have so far improved the general revenues, as to have reduced, independent of the income tax, the annual deficit, from £2,570,000, to £1,791,000; or, in other words, without the income tax, the deficit would now be £1,791,000, showing that a reduction of indirect taxes raised the revenue £2,000,000. The most important changes which took place in duties at that time were the reductions in corn and provisions; the removal of all prohibitory duties; the classification of the tariff under twenty heads; the announcement of the following as maximum duties; 5 per cent on raw materials, 12 per cent on articles partly manufactured, and 20 per cent on manufactured articles; a reduction of duties on seven hundred and fifty articles, among which corn and provisions formed very important items. The reduced scale of the rates on provisions has led to a steadily increasing trade, from the United States, not only through Canada, but direct from the Atlantic ports. The reduction in the duties on corn has, for the first time, produced a permanent import trade of corn into England, even at a time of good harvests and low prices.

In order to observe the progress of the English corn trade, we annex a table of the quarters of wheat imported into England from 1814 to 1845, with the yearly average of the prices, which regulate the duties, and the scale of duties during each of the three periods embraced in the table.

Various Tariffs.				Tariff of 1828.			
Year.	Quarters.	Price. s.	d.	Years.	Quarters.	Price. s.	d.
1815,.....	384,475	63	8	1829,.....	1,364,220	66	3
1816,.....	332,491	76	2	1830,.....	1,701,885	64	3
1817,.....	1,090,949	94	0	1831,.....	1,491,631	66	4
1818,.....	1,593,518	83	8	1832,.....	325,435	58	8
1819,.....	122,123	72	3	1833,.....	82,346	52	11
1820,.....	34,274	68	10	1834,.....	64,653	46	2
1821,.....	2	54	5	1835,.....	28,483	39	4
1822,.....	.....	43	3	1836,.....	30,544	48	6
1823,.....	12,137	51	9	1837,.....	244,619	55	10
1824,.....	15,777	62	0	1838,.....	1,853,048	64	7
1825,.....	525,231	66	6	1839,.....	2,700,131	70	8
1826,.....	315,892	56	11	1840,.....	2,022,100	69	4
1827,.....	572,733	56	9	1841,.....	2,772,560	69	0
1828,.....	842,052	60	5	1842,.....	2,759,265	68	1
		Tariff of 1842.					
1843,.....	920,800	54	1	1844,.....	1,068,570	52	7

The tariff of 1842, as compared with 1828, made the following reductions :—

ENGLISH CORN DUTIES.

	Duties.		Reduct'n.			Duties.		Reduct'n.
	1828.	1842.			1828.	1842.		
s.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
72 a 73,.....	2 8	2 0	0 8	69 a 70,.....	13 8	5 0	8 8
73 and over,..	1 0	1 0	.....	66 a 69,.....	16 8	6 0	10 8
71 a 72,.....	6 8	3 0	3 8	65 a 66,.....	20 8	7 0	13 8
70 a 71,.....	10 8	4 0	6 8	64 a 65,.....	21 8	8 0	13 8

The tariff of 1815 was framed as a protection to the farmers, under the supposition that it would sustain prices at the high level current during the war, and farm leases were entered into with this supposition. The three years ending with 1818, were of unusual scarcity, and prices rose to an extraordinary height. This was followed by plenteous harvests and a general level of prices, so low as to produce extreme distress among those farmers who had leased at high rents, depending upon the fallacy of government protection. In the year 1828, the government was forced into a modification of the duties, which continued up to 1842, and its practical results are seen in the following table of the imports and rates of duty paid by wheat and wheat flour during the thirteen years.

IMPORT OF WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR INTO ENGLAND, JULY, 1838, TO JANUARY, 1843.

Rates of duty.	Price.	Qrs. wheat.	Cwts. wheat flour.
1*s.* 0*d.*	over 73*s.*	3,907,981	1,276,731
2 8	72 a 73	2,738,277	835,406
6 8	71 a 72	1,994,102	518,897
10 8	70 a 71	783,281	238,592
13 8	69 a 70	584,348	466,492
16 8	66 a 69	298,677	213,707
20 8	65 a 66	377,667	96,538
Various higher rates.....		588,752	122,032
Total,.....		11,322,085	3,768,335

Nearly eight-tenths of this quantity was admitted when the price was over 70 shillings. The reduction from the previous tariff was, therefore, equal to 10 shillings per quarter on the price at which corn could be admitted. The tariff of 1842 has made a still farther reduction, and the 2,738,277 quarters that paid 2 shillings and 8 pence duty, would now, at the same price, pay but 2 shillings, a reduction of 25 per cent. Near 2,000,000 quarters were, at a price of 71 shillings per quarter, admitted at a duty of 6 shillings and 8 pence. The price would now require to rise only to 66 shillings to admit the same quanties at the same duty, being a reduction of 5 shillings per quarter in the actual price. Again, 800,000 quarters were introduced at 10 shillings and 8 pence duty, the price being 70 shillings per quarter. Corn may now be admitted at 60 shillings to pay the same duty. When we consider the organization of the British social relations, and that the trade in corn has hitherto been one of specie, we become struck with the boldness of a minister who, after the experience of 1839, when the large imports had drained the bank of its bullion, and sent it suppliant to the bank of France for the means to sustain itself, could deliberately take measures to extend that trade in corn which so lately had shaken the very existence of the government. A wise understanding of the real nature of the trade, however, and the necessity of making it gradually free, were the guides by which the government acted. It was self-evident, that the danger to the corn trade existed in the necessity of paying for it in specie. That necessity arose from the

fact that, under the exclusive system of protection, the demand for foreign corn was incidental upon the state of the harvests. When the crops were short, corn must be had; as, however, no corresponding and urgent demand for English goods in payment existed, specie became the only remittance. In all other trades, a reciprocal exchange of goods existed. To create the same demand for British goods in exchange for corn, the import of the latter, into England, must be regular. Hence, by modifying the duties still further, the greatest dangers of the trade were obviated. The event justified the minister. The corn imports continued to an extent greater than ever, but specie ceased to be a means of payment; a return trade in goods sprung up, and not only paid for the corn, but brought specie back to the vaults of the bank of England. The progress of affairs is described in the following table:—

IMPORTS OF WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR INTO GREAT BRITAIN, AND BULLION IN THE BANK, AT THE CLOSE OF EACH YEAR.

Years.	Foreign. Wheat. *Qrs.*	Foreign. Flour. *Cwts.*	Colonial. Wheat. *Qrs.*	Colonial. Flour. *Cwts.*	Price. Ann. av. *s.*	*d.*	Bullion in bk.
1838,.....	1,044,225	351,495	.....	50,330	64	7	£9,362,000
1839,.....	2,790,345	743,245	30	43,800	70	3	2,887,000
1840,.....	2,022,100	1,121,330	4,600	392,100	69	4	3,557,000
1841,.....	2,772,560	632,730	65,726	701,815	69	0	5,031,000
1842,.....	2,759,265	562,135	38,300	548,910	69	1	11,054,000
1843,*....	920,800	98,100	19,630	294,180	54	1	13,933,000
1844,*....	1,068,570	306,000	44,470	774,800	52	7	13,776,000

The large imports of 1841–2 caused no drain of bullion, which constantly increased in the bank vaults. With the operation of the new tariff, the prices were decidedly reduced; notwithstanding which, the import of corn continued. This trade has now become permanent and increasing. The following shows the average annual import since about the period when England ceased to be an exporting country:—

IMPORT OF WHEAT INTO ENGLAND.

	Quarters.		Quarters.
1761 to 1770, average ann. imp.,	94,089	1811 to 1820, average ann. imp.,	429,076
1771 to 1780, " "	111,372	1821 to 1830, " "	534,762
1781 to 1790, " "	143,292	1831 to 1840, " "	908,118
1791 to 1800, " "	470,342	1841 to 1844, " "	1,922,330
1810 to 1818, " "	555,959		

This increase in the last period, has been almost entirely the effect of the last reduction in duties, coming in aid of the import of corn at a time of good harvests and low prices. Intimately connected with this operation of the corn trade, was the currency of England, which, at the expiration of the charter of the bank, underwent a salutary change in continuation of the policy of the bill of 1819, which compelled a return to specie payments, after a lapse of nearly one-quarter of a century. The large expenditures of the war, involving, as they did, heavy taxes, as well as extensive loans, could not have been met in a specie currency, because the very existence of the war caused an absorption of the precious metals, for the military chests of Europe, as well as for the hoards of timid individuals. An unrestricted issue of paper money, made a legal tender, and received for all government wants, furnished ample means to pay taxes, accompanied, as it was, by a rise in prices corresponding with its extent.

* New tariff.

For this paper money, the government absorbed a large proportion of the industry of the people, and the proceeds, in the shape of munitions of war, were distributed throughout Europe. When these demands of the government closed with the war, and commercial intercourse with the world re-commenced, England was surrounded with nations whose currency was specie, and whose prices were at a corresponding level. Her own currency was highly inflated, and her commodities too high to admit of sale. These necessarily began to fall; and, with the decline, the real distress occasioned by the long wars began. The resumption of specie payments, according to the bill of 1819, made the currency, as furnished by the bank of England, convertible, but still allowed of great expansions, by issuing notes, in a proportion of three to one of specie. The evil of this system, as operated upon by the corn laws, was, that in a season of good harvest, when no import took place, coin accumulated in the bank; which, by pushing out its paper, raised prices, and, by so doing, checked exports and promoted imports. Now, it would inevitably happen, that a short harvest would overtake the market when prices of goods were highest, exports at the lowest, and imports of foreign products were the most considerable. This afforded an additional reason why corn must be paid for in specie; and, by so doing, sap the whole fabric of prices, and involve in ruin all who had obligations outstanding. At the expiration of the bank charter, in August last, an important step was taken towards remedying this evil, by preventing any expansion of the currency beyond that which is naturally created by the influx of coin, following the course of trade. To arrive at this desirable object, the issues of the country banks were fixed at an amount below the highest at which they were accustomed to stand. The issues of the bank of England were fixed at a sum of £14,000,000, to be secured upon the debt due to the bank by the government, and over that amount no issues could take place, except in exchange for an equal amount of specie brought into the bank; as this amount secured upon stock was far below the lowest point of the bank circulation, it followed, that the fluctuation which could take place in the currency, would be, by the actual increase or decrease of gold and silver within the country. Under this law, the movement has been as follows:

Circulation and Bullion of the Bank of England, under its new Charter.

	Issues.	Notes on hand.	Nett circulation.	Bullion.
September 7,.....	£28,351,295	£8,175,025	£20,186,070	£15,209,060
" 14,.....	28,500,880	8,620,220	19,880,660	15,197,771
" 21,.....	28,582,705	8,964,545	19,610,160	15,378,964
" 28,.....	28,362,830	8,460,705	19,902,125	15,022,256
October 5,.....	28,082,905	7,930,010	20,152,895	14,702,307
" 12,.....	27,838,085	7,610,025	20,228,060	14,455,034
" 19,.....	27,731,910	6,648,665	21,083,245	14,190,082
" 26,.....	27,545,730	6,244,845	21,300,885	14,096,828
November 2,.....	27,498,580	6,678,715	20,820,865	14,033,751
" 9,.....	27,400,995	6,844,275	20,556,720	14,115,649
" 16,.....	27,507,795	6,927,045	20,580,750	14,221,252
" 23,.....	27,528,875	7,410,400	20,118,475	14,365,590
" 30,.....	27,786,190	7,943,850	20,843,340	14,558,336
Decemb'r 14,.....	28,003,705	8,745,540	19,258,165	14,884,294
" 21,.....	28,151,730	8,959,630	19,192,100	14,943,147
" 28,.....	28,200,165	9,076,800	19,124,365	14,878,416
1845. Jan. 11,.....	28,163,130	7,772,930	30,390,200	14,775,839
" 25,.....	28,128,310	7,418,075	20,710,235	14,819,872

From this movement, it is very evident that the principle on which the

new charter was organized comes not into action, and for an obvious reason. The issues on stocks to the amount of £14,000,000, added to the unusual amount of bullion on hand, forms a sum far in excess of the amount of bills which can be kept in circulation. The excess remains in bills on hand, consequently, the volume of the currency furnished, varies, not as intended, according to the movements of specie, but with the amount of notes on hand. This must continue to be the case until the amount of bullion shall have sunk below the sum of the notes on hand; when they are exhausted, the only fluctuation which can take place in the floating currency, will be according to the vacillations of the specie, and the banking department will cease to have any influence upon the supply of money. The currency of the kingdom will then have become virtually metallic. Up to this time, the movements of the Scotch and Irish banks have not been interfered with by the government, the restrictions adopted upon the expiration of the bank of England charter applying only to that institution, and to the English country banks; the government has, however, given notice that restrictions, similar to those imposed upon the latter, will be applied to those of Ireland and Scotland. It is obvious, that to confine the English currency within a certain limit, and allow that of the sister kingdoms to expand at pleasure, must produce an uneven action, detrimental to the interests of trade. The object to be obtained, by thus making the supply of currency depend solely upon the movement of the precious metals, is to avoid those expansions by which a fictitious rise in prices is created, and which contains the seeds of inevitable revulsion. To prevent a redundancy of the British currency, and, consequently, to ensure a steadiness of low prices, is one great branch of that policy which has governed the modification of the tariff, the essence of which is to produce cheap, sell low, not by means of reducing the wages of labor, but by diminishing the cost of the raw materials, and, at the same time, by relinquishing a part of the tax imposed upon the wages of labor for the support of the government, to improve, to that extent, the condition of the laborer, who is further benefited by the reduced price of food under the modified corn law. The amount of tax removed by the latter enactment, is equal to £16,000,000 per annum in the last year; as thus, the consumption of wheat is estimated at 16,000,000 quarters per annum, and the reduction in price has been near £1 per quarter in the last year. These combined movements, since the accession of the present government to power, have restored the revenues of the government, and given it a surplus of £3,409,000, which the minister proposes to appropriate as follows:—

Surplus revenue,		£3,409,000
Reduction on sugar,	£1,300,000	
" 430 articles made free,	320,000	
Removal of export duty on coal,	188,000	
" customs duty on cotton,	680,000	
" " " auctions,	250,000	
" " " glass,	640,000	
" " " staves,	320,000	
		3,338,000
Excess,		£71,000

With respect to sugar, it is proposed to reduce the duties as follows, (discriminating between brown and white clayed,) viz:—

	Muscovado, etc.		Wh. cl'd.		In lieu of
From Br. colonies, to.....	14*s.*	0*d.*	16*s.*	4*d.*	24*s.* per cwt., and 5 per cent.
" imp'g sugar,	18	8	21	9	32 " "
Foreign, (free labor,).....	23	4	28	0	34 " "

Thus continuing the principle of excluding slave-labor sugar, unless under treaty. Single and double refined are also proposed to be admitted from the privileged British colonies at 18*s.* 8*d.* and 21*s.* per cwt. respectively.

The removal of duty upon four hundred and thirty articles is a weeding out of the tariff, of vexatious restrictions on trade. Most of the articles enter into the cost of production of goods; but to a great extent they are products of the articles which will be greatly benefited by the movement. Among the articles on which the duties are abolished, may be cited, ashes, bark, hemp, hides, lard-oil, oilseed-cakes, flaxseed, rosin, skins and furs, tar, turpentine, and beeswax.

The coal duty was an imposition on an important English staple export, the removal of which, at the earliest day, was politic. The duty on cotton, at present low prices, amounted to 12½ per cent ad valorem, and its removal is of vast consequence, not only to the English manufacturers and consumers, but to the southern producers. The heavy duty upon glass manufactured in England, we believe was never claimed to be a "protective" duty, and its removal as soon as the revenue could spare the amount, was certainly a wise measure. The auction duty was one of peculiar hardship, inasmuch as that it fell mostly on those whose goods were compelled to be sold in that manner by process of law. In all other cases, goods were, according to the statements of the minister, offered at auction, only as a means of ascertaining their value. If bought in, they do not pay the duty. When property was offered at auction, the officers of the excise were compelled to examine and keep an account; but the duty was not paid unless actually sold. The result was as follows:—

Value of property offered at auction, 1841,.....	£45,232,000
Amount which paid duty,.....	8,760,000
Amount exposed, and not sold,.....	£36,472,000

The expense of examining and keeping account of this enormous amount, was entirely thrown away, as well as was the vast expense of inspecting the glass manufacturer. The repeal of the duty on staves was directly to benefit the English coopers, with whom U. States staves are a favorite article. The repeal of these duties was contingent upon the retention of the income, or property tax, for three years more, which has been acceded to, although the minister very distinctly intimated that further reduction in duties on goods might become requisite, at the expiration of that time.

It is worthy of remark in contemplating these very gratifying evidences of increasing liberality in commercial legislation, that one very important principle which was maintained on the occasion of the modification of the tariff of 1842, has been entirely abandoned on this occasion; we allude to that of not reducing the duty upon an article of import, without first negotiating with the country of its growth for a corresponding reduction upon articles of British manufacture. In 1842, the article of sugar was exempted from the reduction on the ground of negotiations with the Brazils for the admission of English goods into that market, at a corresponding modification of duties. What is the course now pursued? Why,

notwithstanding that the United States have enacted almost prohibitory duties upon British goods, avowedly to exclude them from this market, she has absolutely repealed the duties upon four-fifths of our exports; that is, out of a value of $54,000,000 of produce sent to England in 1840, $44,000,000 will now be free of duty. It is said that she has done so "to benefit her own people." Most undoubtedly that is the case; and it is matter of great satisfaction to friends of commercial freedom and human liberty throughout the world, that at last the leading government has recognised import duties as burdens upon their own citizens, and that they are so considered here. The triumph of principle is a great one, and may soon lead to a relaxation of similar burdens upon the citizens of the United States. As we have remarked, the English government have abandoned the principle of negotiating for the reduction of burdens on the citizens of other countries, because they are about to remove burdens on their own. In preparing for the great race of commercial prosperity, and taking the weights off their own steed, they do not see that his speed will be improved by negotiating a removal of those upon his competitor; on the other hand, his chances in the strife will be improved by a continuance of the latter. Great complaint has been raised in this country because of the high duties imposed in England on breadstuffs and tobacco. During the great modification in England of duties which we have pointed out, our own duties on English goods have been raised from 20 per cent, to, in many cases, 180 per cent. England does not object to the latter, because it is a burden upon Americans. The former she is removing as fast as the state of her finances will permit. She is yearly widening her market for the sale of foreign produce, on the avowed principle of promoting consumption among the masses of the people. The demands for wheat are already 16,000,000 bushels per annum. The United States may compete with her colonies and with Europe in supplying that demand. But which will become the most successful? Clearly that country to which the proceeds of the wheat sales can return with the best advantage. If the United States refuse any product of English industry in payment, and Russia will take anything in payment, Russia will supply the English markets; or, in other words, if a Russian may send £100,000 of wheat to England, and the proceeds returns to him without tax, he will have an infinite advantage over the United States farmer, from the proceeds of whose sales 36 and 50 per cent is deducted by the government for "protective duties." That country which taxes her *own* citizens the least will obtain the trade. T. P. K.

Art IV.—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

By the constitution of the United States, the power of regulating the standard of weights and measures, was granted to the Federal Government. It was never exercised until recently, except in our uniform regulations relative to custom houses.

The exercise of this power which has so long been deferred, and which is so important, was brought about in the following manner. The standard of weights and measures in Massachusetts had become inaccurate, and the banks in their payments of gold to individuals out of the state, and to the Uniied States, ascertained that their weights did not agree

with those of other states. In consequence of this embarrassment, a resolve was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts, to authorize the executive to appoint commissioners to correct and regulate the standard of weights and measures. In the performance of this duty, the commissioners became strongly impressed with the great importance of the exercise of this power by the Federal Government, to regulate the standard. Upon inquiry, it was ascertained that the state of New York had adopted a standard of its own, varying in some respects from that of the United States. Some of the southern states retained the same standards which they had used since their existence as colonies, which had become very inaccurate. The United States had adopted the standard of weights and measures of Great Britain. The Troy pound of Great Britain is the standard for the coinage of the United States. The great advantage of having adopted the English standard is, that they are now used in a much greater part of the commercial world, than any other. It is comparatively of little consequence, what the standard is, provided it is uniform and in general use.

For the purpose of accomplishing this object, the exercise of this power to regulate the standard of weights and measures, one of the commissioners visited Washington in 1836. By the assistance of Abbot Lawrence, a member of the House of Representatives, and John Davis, a member of the Senate, bills were introduced into both branches, relating to this subject. It was received with so much favor in the Senate that Mr. Davis was enabled to press the bill through all its stages in one day. The law directed the Secretary of the Treasury to construct and supply standards of weights, of length, and of capacity of the United States, to the executives of the different states of the Union, the governors of territories, and the custom houses.

It is a subject of some surprise, that this important subject should have been delayed so long. It displays, in a very striking manner, the jealousy of the Federal Government, because, it could arise from no other cause. It was one of the great objects of the constitution to have a perfect uniformity of weights and measures. Though the subject had been several times before Congress, no action had ever been taken upon the subject. The power was now exercised from necessity to prevent general embarrassment. The only objects of the Germanic Confederation, called the Zoll-Verine, were uniformity of weights and measures, and uniformity of duties.

The celebrated report of John Quincy Adams, upon weights and measures in the year 1821, appears to have been acted upon, in most of its details, as much as if the law had been passed at the time the report was made. Mr. Adams gave the preference to the standards of Great Britain, over those of France, probably from the fact that they were generally in use in the United States. Any great change in weights and measures similar to that introduced in France, of the same decimal principle, would have been attended with great embarrassment in this country. Even in France, the law was twice altered, to conform in some degree to the ancient customs of the country. The theory of decimals in weights and measures, however superior, was not fully carried out.

The French standard of linear measure was declared to be "an aliquot part of the circumference of the globe," to be ascertained by the admeasurement of the meridian from Dunkirk to Barcelona, being between nine and ten degrees of latitude. The English standard was

ascertained by the length of a pendulum, vibrating a certain number of seconds in twenty-four hours.

"In the English system, the standard of linear measure is connected with the weight, by the specific gravity of spring water, of which one measure of one cubic foot contains one thousand ounces avourdupois.

"In the French system, the standard of linear measure, is connected with the weights and measures of capacity, by the specific gravity of distilled water, at the greatest density, one cubic decemeter of such water being the weight of a kilogram, and filling the measure of a litre."

The manufacture of these standards of weights and measures was entrusted to F. H. Hasler, who had been so long employed in the trigonometrical survey of the United States. They are all completed and delivered to the different states of the Union. These standards for future time are as perfect as skill and science can make them.

Mr. Hasler died during the last year, having been employed nearly thirty years in the trigonometrical survey of the United States. It was but partially completed, and was undoubtedly delayed by ill health and want of appropriations. All bear testimony to the skill and science with which it has been conducted. The city of New York owes a tribute of respect to his memory, as this survey ascertained the existence of a deeper channel to the harbour of the city. The new channel discovered is of sufficient depth for ships of war of the largest class. The channel which has been heretofore used is not of sufficient depth. The frigate United States, during the last war with England, being heavily loaded for a long cruise, grounded in the channel, and lost her false keel; this impeded her sailing so much that she was immediately attacked by three British frigates and captured.

Art. V.—COPPER SMELTING IN THE UNITED STATES.

We publish below a letter from George Ditson, Esq., our vice consul at Nuevitas, (Cuba,) on the subject of establishing smelting works in the United States, for the rich ores of Cuba. Mr. Ditson is interested in several valuable mines in that island, and his experience in the mining business, gives, of course, authority to his views in regard to so important a branch of commercial enterprise.

Freeman Hunt, Esq.,

Dear Sir:—While I have the satisfaction of believing that by your aid I have succeeded in arousing somewhat the attention of the public to the important subject of smelting copper in the United States, I am conscious of having only partly accomplished the great design which has in its fulfilment, in England, yielded such important service to the commerce and government of that country.

Our transatlantic friends, the smelters, the capitalists, the political economist, are now making strenuous efforts to sustain this undertaking, (in which England long ago should have had America as a rival,) to the entire exclusion of all other countries, it having produced, besides vast wealth to many individuals, an enormous revenue to the crown—a sufficient inducement to make extraordinary exertions not to have it wrested from them by those, who, in enterprise only, claim to be chips of the old block, emulating the worthy and creditable designs of their sterling fathers, of getting what they can, and keeping what they get.

Great Britain has had, to this day, the entire control of all the great copper markets of the world, through the power of her Swansea Furnaces, while America, from north to south, has been the great producer of the ores, neglecting to take advantage of its own capabilities, and reap the rich harvest due to its own products and natural resources.

The article which I wrote some time ago for your magazine, startled the attention of the British subjects to such a degree, that it was easy for any ordinary observer to see that they at once discovered the plausibility of our reasoning, and apprehended an immediate revolution in the copper trade, through the proverbial energy and alertness of the Yankees, while it was also strongly urged on their part, that something must be done to prevent the success of a project which would eventually prove so ruinous to them in this valuable business. Meetings were held in various places, and several memorials presented to government, notwithstanding it had been clearly proved by Sir Charles Lemon, and others, at a meeting in Truro in February last, and sustained by the admirable arguments of the editor of the Mining Journal in his review of the memorial of the "Liverpool clique," that "the idea that Boston (and probably any other place in the United States) dependent (!) as it was on England for fuel, was likely to rival them in the smelting of ores, was the wildest dream any man could utter."

The fact is as clear as noon-day, (and the Swansea capitalists would be blind indeed if they did not see it,) that if England continues the present high duty on copper ores, our government admitting it free and putting a duty on foreign manufactured copper, the furnaces which might be erected at some favorable point, Philadelphia for instance, would command all the ores from cape Skalatskoi to cape Horn, and consequently the copper trade of a great portion of the commercial world, would shower upon our merchants and our country at large benefits almost beyond estimation. And if we may rest on the opinions expressed by the chairman of the "meeting of the lords, adventurers and others," above referred to, there is no prospect of there being any change in the present tariff of England, as respects copper, for he says, "He thought that no government would sanction the entire abolition, or reduction of the duties, in the face of the fact, that in the year 1844, the quantity of foreign copper ore sold, was greater than the ore sold in Cornwall, and the value of the foreign ore had equalled the British."

The only objections which I have heard made against the subject before us, are, the price of coals, of labor and transportation, compared with those of Europe. Now, supposing we allow that these costs are thrice as great as they are there, we immediately overcome this difficulty by being able to pay thrice as much for smelting, on account of our not having to pay duty on the ore, and about one-half less for the freight of it. But fortunately, this great treble bugbear we shall not have to contend with. We are not so dull as not to learn something from the experience of others; and when all other means fail us, having plenty of wood in this country, we will smelt with charcoal as they do in Sweden, at a cost of 7s. 6d. per ton, or we will import our coals as they do at the Alten works in Norway, where, even with this drawback, they smelt for $7 50 per ton. Should this be beyond our means, we will then send a commissary to the Himmaleh mountains, and learn of the poor and unlettered Hindoo how to dig and profitably smelt copper ore. But extravagances aside, much will depend on the judicious arrangement of our furnaces, without which our efforts will prove unavailing, and we shall be forced to believe that the project is impracticable. For one, I am well convinced that it is not impracticable, when all the ordinary advantages of our country are made use of; and I am perfectly well convinced that it is not only practicable, but that it will prove extraordinarily profitable to those engaged in it, besides being, when once established, a pearl of great price to the nation. I have expressed above, that the position of our furnaces will be the pivot on which we shall turn to good or bad results, for in this will consist our ability to overcome the objections to that success, which appears to the old country people, as did the first railroad project, so like a "wild dream." Now, if the statement made by Sir Charles Lemon were true, that our coalpits are at least 150 miles from the coast; that Boston is dependent on England for fuel, and the price of coals in New York is $6 50 besides the freight, and we were obliged to put up our furnaces at one of these places, there would then be more ground for the hints thrown out on the other side, that persons who advocate the smelting of ores in the United States have more ignorance, brass, irony and deception in their composition than is usually necessary for mankind to possess. But such is not the case; Boston is not dependent on England for fuel. Coals can be had in New York at $4 50 per ton,

and in Havre de Grace, on the Chesapeake, at $3. But not even at these prices shall we talk of coals for smelting ores. We have advantages yet to be named.

I am well aware that to accomplish the great object of which we treat, it is of the utmost importance, it being a new enterprise, that the first steps taken be those which will never have to be retraced, and, if possible, never improved on. First, then, the furnaces must be built at the very mouth of some productive, inexhaustible coal mine, from which the fine coals, useful in smelting, but hardly worth the cost of transport, can be had for about the mere expense of drawing them to the surface. Secondly, this coal mine must be the nearest to the seaboard that can be found, or have at least the cheapest mode possible of transporting the ores from the place of their disembarcation. Thirdly, practical smelters must be obtained, (the Germans should be prefered) men of honor and respectability, who can be trusted, or otherwise we might possibly hire men who had been by interested parties, bribed to spoil our first essays, and thus bring our undertaking into disrepute. Fourthly, the furnace must be of the most approved construction. Fifthly, a large amount of capital must be at command, and if sufficient, the controlling amount of stock of some of the rich St. Jago or Bayataro mines obtained, by which a constant supply of ores might always be depended on in case the other sources should at any time fail.

If I have been correctly informed, Pottsville, Pa., only ninety miles from the coast, possesses all the advantages mentioned above as required, so far as regards cheap coals and cheap transit. At Pottsville, I am told that coals can be had at the mouth of the mines for less than $1 per ton, and that there is a cheap means of conveyance by the railway from the very wharf in Philadelphia to the mines at Pottsville. This, then, is the important point at which our first experiment should be tried, and if good practical smelters can be had, the success cannot be doubtful. Among other prominent reasons for establishing the furnaces at the mines, are these—that the quantity of coals used in the present method of smelting, compared with the ore, is as forty to twenty-five, making a much less bulk of ores to carry up to the mines than would be required of coals to be brought down, in case the furnaces were on the coast. And, again, as the cars have plenty to bring down, which will pay a profit at $2 per ton, they can well afford to take back a load in their otherwise empty cars, at half price. Against this it is argued, that as the anthracite coal contains much more carbon than the bituminous, and that as it would be used in Cooper's new patent blast furnace, (a most admirable, compact and powerful affair,) and be calcined in the open air, a great saving will be made in the quantity of coals, so much so that it may be cheaper to bring them to the ores.

A supply of ores for the furnaces can, without doubt, be secured by making contracts with the mine owners of Cuba and South America; I say, without doubt, because we can afford to pay more than can be realised for them in England, in consideration of the high duty, freight, &c. chargeable there. An English vessel was recently loading in Nuevitas for Swansea at £4 per ton freight. The ores would produce over 20 per cent, and consequently would have to pay £6 duty per ton of copper, besides £2 15*s.* per ton for smelting. This cargo would have been carried to the United States for only $6 per ton, and give at that, fair freight to an American vessel. It could have been entered free of duty, and I believe, smelted as cheap as in Swansea. The vast difference in the amount of profit accruing to the owner would be the only inducement we could wish to offer him, to cause him to ship forever after to the United States.

The district of Bayatavo, with Nuevitas for its port, on the northern coast of Cuba, abounds in lodes and deposits of copper ore. The mines already opened, if they produce according to their present rich indications, may be depended on for almost any amount of mineral required to supply our market. They are, however, yet in their infancy, and to work them to the most beneficial results, large companies should be formed, and all the modern improvements in mining adopted. If it would not appear too much like self interest, I would here urge the American capitalists to enter at once into this vast field of wealth, extract their own ores and smelt them on their own account, stay the hasty footsteps of the English already abroad in that province, and gather the golden coin offered by these new enterprises.

In my former article on the subject of smelting, I referred to the wastage on ores shipped via New York. The London reviewer takes exception to this, and says, that "it is the first time he has ever found it asserted that wastage was effected by the length of the voyage." I should judge from this that he was not aware that there was any other way of sending ores to England, except direct. So far from this, I have always found it cheaper to send by way of New York, and suffer the loss of considerable ore from its being three or four times handled over, and I assert as I did before, that the wastage is with me an important consideration, and is one of the reasons why I should wish the ore to be smelted here. It is true, I might ship direct to Swansea, but high freight would more than equal the loss sustained by wastage in changing the ore from vessel to vessel. In conclusion, allow me to remark, that while I respect the spirit and energy with which the reviewer of the late Liverpool memorial, my letters and others, have sustained the interests of the home miner, I cannot see the force, the utility, or the pith of attacking the private character of the very respectable memorialists, for I cannot discover that a single argument advanced by them has been thus weakened or refuted.

Respectfully yours,

GEORGE DITSON.

ART. VI.—THE GOLD SANDS OF SIBERIA.

THERE is, in a late volume of the *Annales des Mines*, an article from the *Gazette du Commerce*, of St. Petersburgh, giving a detailed, and apparently an authentic account of the history and product of the lately discovered beds of gold, producing sands, in Siberia. As this is a subject which has excited some interest, from its supposed relation to the universal currency, we give a brief summary of the information contained in this article.

It was not until a period considerably later than that in which gold sands had been discovered in beds lying on the sides of the Ural mountains, that riches of a similar kind were found in Siberia. Researches had been made, by two enterprizing merchants of the name of Popoff, in different parts of the country, without success; and it was not until the year 1829, that one of these brothers discovered, at the foot of the Altai mountains, in the government of Jomsk, on the borders of the Birikoulka, some indications of gold. The quantity, however, was very small, and the ore containing a larger proportion than usual of silver; the doubts of finding rich beds of gold sand in Siberia were confirmed.

But in the year 1830, the Altai mines, which had, up to that period, belonged to the Imperial cabinet, were, with a view to unite all establishments of the kind under one administration, put under the direction of the minister of finances. More regular researches under this direction were more successful than former ones had been; and in the course of the same year, a considerable bed of golden sand was discovered, to which the name of Yegorievsky (St. George) was given.

This discovery changed entirely the opinion which had been formed of the unproductiveness of the soil of Siberia, and became the signal at which the enterprise of individuals was aroused. As the region of the district of Kolyvan belonged to the government, attention was at first directed to the chain of neighboring mountains, between the Tom and the Yenessei, where the first discoveries had been made by Popoff. In 1832, the rich layer, designated Voskressensky, was discovered, on the borders of the Kondoustouyoule; and at this point the labors of those interested

were directed for several years. In 1836, they began to extend their researches further, in an eastern direction, and carried them quite to the frontiers of the government of Irkoustk. In that inhospitable country, bristling with rocks, and almost inaccessible, a succession of very rich layers of auriferous sands was discovered on the borders of the Birouzka. The numbers of explorers increasing however constantly, the researches were pushed still further north; and, in the course of the years 1840 and 1841, between the rivers bearing the names of upper and lower Tougouzka, a great number of auriferous sand beds was found, equally remarkable for their extent and richness, and surpassing all former discoveries in the immensity of treasure. More recent researches have been pushed beyond this region, toward the north and east, and they are still going on, and will, probably, before long, be carried beyond the chain of mountains which separates the sources of the Yenessei from the basin of the Lena.

The establishments for washing, organized in the district of the government mines, in the district between the Obi and the Tom, produce annually from 30 to 35 puds of gold, without counting an almost equal quantity contained in the silver drawn from the mines, so that the gold found in this district amounts, in a year, to 60 or 70 puds.

In the district between the Tom and the Yenessei are several rich beds, the most important of which is that of Voskressensky, belonging to the merchants Rozanoff and Balandure, situated in the basin of Kiy, on the banks of the Kondoustouyoule. This bed is celebrated for its richness, the produce of gold being, when it was first discovered, not less than 5 zolotnicks of gold for 100 puds of sand. It has produced, since its discovery in 1832, to 1842, 330 puds of gold, equal in value to 4,200,000 rix dollars. Its produce, in 1842, was 40 puds. The sands at present worked, do not afford over 2½ zolotnicks of gold to 100 puds of sand. In this district is the bed worked by the Popoff Company, as well as a number of others by other companies.

In the bed worked by the Popoff Company, a lump of the native gold has been recently found, weighing 24½ pounds; it was enclosed in a fragment of quartz, of which it had penetrated every part. The produce of all the auriferous sand beds in the government of Tomsk and Yenesseik, wrought by individuals, in the year 1842, was 107 puds of gold.

In the Kirghisan steppes, gold beds have also been discovered, and worked with good success. The work is done almost exclusively by the Kirghises, under contract with the undertakers; and they are, by degrees, withdrawn from the wandering life of nomades, to a life bordering on civilization. The produce of these mines, in 1842, did not exceed 8 puds.

The most extensive and richest beds of gold sands are found in the more distant countries, between the Yenesei and the Lena. Among the most remarkable of these, is the Vliko-Nicolaievsky, on the banks of the Khouna, belonging to the merchant Tolkatcheff. This mine produced, in 1842, 78 puds of gold. Another, on the banks of the same river, called the Velico-Nikolskoi, produced, in 1842, 25 puds. Several other beds, on the left of the river Biriowza, produced, together, in 1842, 115 puds of gold. In another region, on the banks of the Pekine, is the bed which belongs to the merchant Nikita Miasnikoff, from which were taken, in 1842, more than 100 puds of gold. The proprietor of this mine has become one of the richest merchants in Russia.

On the banks of the same river, is the bed of Nicholas Miasnikoff, which produced, in 1842, more than 28 puds of gold, and on the Schaorgane, is one, belonging to a company, which produced 36 puds. In the basin of the Mouroschna, is one which produced, in the same year, over 44 puds, and another which produced 4 puds. In the basin of the Pita, are three, which produced 14½, 34½, and 16 puds each. In the basin of the Toungouzka, are three beds, which produced, last year, 4 puds, 6 puds, and 21 puds respectively. The whole of the establishments for washing, beyond the upper Toungouzko, produced, together, in 1842, over 364 puds of gold.

Adding to these quantities the metal produced from mines or sand beds worked for account of the crown, Siberia produced, in the course of the year 1842, in round numbers, the following quantities:—

By means of washing, from beds of sand belonging to the crown, together with those worked by individuals,.....	632 puds.
Gold extracted from silver taken from the mines of Kolyvan,.....	30
From gold producing sand beds in the Ural mountains,	310
Total,.....	972 puds.

The same volume of the *Annales des Mines*, from which the above facts are taken, contains a letter from M. Koucharoff, an officer in the Imperial Corps of Mining Engineers, to Mr. Humboldt, describing the mass (pepite) of gold recently discovered in the Ural. He says this mass is the largest known in the world. It was found in the auriferous sands of Miask, not far from the famous mines of Tzarevo-Nikolaefsk, in the southern Ural. This mine, and a neighboring one, which had been visited by Mr. Humboldt, have yielded, up to the last year, nearly 400 puds, 6,555 kilograms of gold, and very remarkable pepites or masses have been found in them. This monster pepite was discovered October 26, 1842; it weighed 2 puds 7 pounds and 92 zolotnicks (36 kilograms .020768.) This pepite was lying on a stratum of diorite of the bed of auriferous sand, at a depth of 4½ archines (3 metres) from the surface of the soil, and under the corner of the works. This lump has been taken to St. Petersburg, and placed in the Museum of the Mining Engineers. The following note of Mr. Humboldt is appended to the letter containing the above description:—

The largest piece of platina found as yet at Nijni Jageuleg weighs 20 pounds Russian, 34 zolotnicks.

The lump of gold found at Miask in 1826,.....	10 kils.	118
Lump found in Anson county, North Carolina, United States, 1821,.....	21 "	70
Grano de oro, found in the Rio Hayna, and dropped to the bottom of the sea, (see my critical examination of the Geography of the Continent, vol. iii., p. 330.)	14 "	500
Monster lump of Miask, found in 1842,.....	36 "	020

According to the letter of the Count Cancrine, of the 3d of December, 1842, Siberia, east of the Ural, produced, in 1842, the quantity of 479 puds of gold, equal to 7,846 kilograms, and all Russia, probably, 970 puds of gold, equal to 15,889 kilograms.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

CONDITION OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—CUSTOMS REVENUES OF THE UNITED STATES—NEW YORK STATE DEBT, RAILROAD MOVEMENT, ETC., ETC.

Since the date of our last number, the money and general markets have been greatly agitated through political causes, in a manner to check the otherwise generally advancing prosperity of affairs. The state of the Texas question operated to prevent any increase of confidence among capitalists, who are usually the most sensitive class of citizens; and the stock-market became gradually depressed, under the action of weak sellers. In this state of affairs, accounts were received from England, of a nature to excite surprise; inasmuch as that certain expressions in the inaugural of the chief magistrate, relative to Oregon, had been skilfully used by the English ministry to cover, by a show of nationality, the passage of an obnoxious bill through Parliament, and intended to conciliate Ireland. This at first bore the appearance of menace, until reflection convinced the public mind that Britain is not prepared to hazard empire on so small a stake as her shadowy claim to that distant and almost tenantless territory. In the meantime, advices from Mexico brought unexpectedly indications of a moderate tone on the Texas affair. The real danger of collision in that quarter, which consisted in an outburst of passion, before reason and reflection should cause Mexican rulers to remember that eight years of independence, *de facto*, on the part of Texas, and of commercial and diplomatic intercourse with the nations of the earth, were sufficient to neutralize, in a great degree, her claim over that sovereignty. The governments of France and England, through their agents, were exceedingly active in preventing the consummation of this measure; but the interests of the world will not allow its peace to be broken for the indulgence of impotent rage. The markets, therefore, relieved from these apprehensions, again became animated, and a disposition to speculate began, at the close of the month, to manifest itself. The increased abundance of money greatly assisted this disposition to operate. The liabilities of the New York banks had, during the quarter ending May 1st, been considerably curtailed, and the amount of specie on hand increased—a natural result of the continued large exports of produce, with advanced prices in the interior, and diminished imports. The progress of the latter is indicated in the following return of the United States customs revenues, for several successive quarters:—

QUARTERLY CUSTOMS REVENUES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Qr. ending March 31.	Qr. ending June 30.	Qr. ending Sept. 30.	Qr. ending Dec. 31.
1842,.....	$1,840,721	$6,138,390	$6,281,659	$3,927,137
1843,.....	2,940,804	4,106,039	6,132,272	3,904,933
1844,.....	7,675,366	8,471,000	10,750,000	4,100,360
1845,.....	6,375,575	6,608,380	.....	.....

The revenues for the quarter ending June 30, 1845, are estimated on the fact that the actual customs of the six weeks ending May 15, are 22 per cent less than for the corresponding period of the previous year. Hence the decrease of customs, for the six months ending June 30, 1845, as compared with June 30, 1844, is $3,162,411; which, at the usual average of the duties, is equal to $10,000,000 worth of dutiable goods. There is a great diminution in the demand for bills at this season of the year, when the supply is usually the smallest. The demand for bills, as compared with last fall, is further diminished by the fact that a portion of the New York state debt, which falls due July, 1845, was anticipated by the comptroller, and paid last fall. Thus, the debt of the state of New York is held as follows:—

Held in the state of New York,.....	$14,098,540 15
" other states,.....	1,126,758 20
Held by foreigners,.....	10,833,776 09
Total,.....	$25,999,074 44

Of this debt, the following sums fall due:—

July, 1845,.....	$1,380,090 35
After 1845, (January, 1846,).....	2,362,535 66
During 1846,.....	572,384 00
Total,.....	$4,315,010 01

Of this amount, $3,256,000 is held by foreigners. The sum which falls due in July next, is the last instalment of the Erie and Champlain canal debt, and releases the constitutional pledges in regard to the payment of the debts. An amount sufficient to meet the payment falling due July, 1845, was last year on hand; and, in consequence, the commissioners of the canal fund sent notices to the holders, offering to redeem the stock in advance, at a small premium. In consequence of this, $333,000 was redeemed before September, 1844. Of the stock which falls due January, 1846, over $600,000 is in the hands of the sinking fund. Hence, up to January, 1846, there is but little to be paid or remitted; while, on the other hand, the final acceptation, on the part of the London creditors of Illinois, of the law passed at the last session of that state, amendatory of the Illinois and Michigan canal law of 1843, places $1,600,000 at the disposal of the trustees, for the construction of the canal. Of this amount, over $1,000,000 will be drawn from London, for expenditure in Illinois. It is, however, true, that the remittances on account of the Pennsylvania interest, due in August, will, this year, produce an influence which, last year, did not exist. The probability is, that the whole amount will not be paid in cash in August, in consequence of the revenues of the state amounting to much less than was anticipated. According to a late law, however, all the money in the treasury, on the 1st of August, will be divided, pro rata, among the creditors, and the deficit met by checks, payable out of the first receipts into the treasury, any time within four months. The city of Detroit, which has been delinquent for some four years, has this year most honorably redeemed its credit, and discharged its arrears of interest in full. All these favorable influences have produced a good feeling in the markets, and some considerable disposition to speculate, particularly in stocks. The latter circumstance may, however, be traced more directly to the increased abundance of money, and its fall in price. The returns of the banks of New York, for the May quarter, show a considerable increase of specie over that of the February return, and also a larger amount of individual deposits, with every prospect of a still further increase up to August. At this season of the year, the amount of payments to New York is generally in excess of those due from it; and more particularly so this year, as compared with the last, by reason of the small amount of imports, as above indicated, as well as in consequence of the enhanced money-value of farm produce, whereby the means of consumers of goods to pay, have considerably increased. The general condition of the whole Union was perhaps never more prosperous than now; inasmuch as that the products of the soil, as well as of skilful industry, were never so abundant, in proportion to the inhabitants, nor more equally distributed than at present; while, with the exception of cotton, which continues low in price, under the weight of a larger crop than was ever before sent to market, the money-value of produce has been generally improving, under the influence of an increasing external trade, and the improved means of transportation, by which those products are made more available. The fever for railroads, which has raged to such an extent in England, and, in some degree, proportionate in the New England states, has at last commenced its influence in the state of New York. The city of New York, although the

commercial centre of the Union, has long been without a railroad connection with the interior; and, during five months in the year, is cut off from western New York by reason of the closing of the river navigation. This has arisen, not from any want of a proper appreciation of the importance of such works by the citizens of the state, but in consequence of too great a dependence upon the assistance of the government, rather than upon the enterprise of individuals. At the last session of the New York legislature, several important bills were passed, authorizing the construction of railroads. Among these, the extension of the Harlem railroad to Albany was the most important. That work now runs to White Plains, and the new privileges granted to it will enable it to connect with the Housatonic railroad, and open a communication to Albany, by the closing of the navigation next fall; so that New York will not again be cut off from the interior trade, while Boston enjoys an uninterrupted intercourse. A bill releasing the Erie railroad from the state lien of $3,000,000, upon certain conditions, and granting new privileges to that important work, has also become a law. These have given a great impulse to railroad stocks, and will doubtless prove the precursors to extended speculation in that direction. While, however, the state of New York has thus encouraged the expenditure of private capital in the construction of works of internal communication, the policy of 1842, in regard to the employment of state funds for that purpose, has been adhered to—that is to say, although, by the conservative votes of a portion of the democratic party, a bill actually passed the legislature for a resumption of the state works, in contravention of the spirit of the law of 1842, which suspended further loans, and imposed the mill tax, to meet any possible deficit in means to meet the state interest, as well as to establish a sinking fund for the payment of the debt, it met with the prompt veto of the governor. A bill intimately connected with this subject also became a law, authorizing the submission to the people, at the November election, the question of a state convention, for the amendment of the constitution. The principal amendment sought to be engrafted on that instrument is, to restrict the power of the legislature in the use of the state credit. This measure has been suggested by the disastrous results which, in other states, have attended the too free use of government promises. Pending this question, it was obviously improper to recommence, as was proposed by the vetoed bill, that system of loans for public works, which, once more resumed, could not, without loss, be abandoned, should the people in convention so determine. Neither could the markets, burdened as they are with large quantities of stock, unabsorbed for private investment, sustain any considerable further amounts of state issues. It has thus become certain that, at least for the coming year, the new issues of stock in New York will be confined to the $3,000,000 demanded by the Erie railroad, and the sum required to extend the Harlem to Albany. The latter city will probably issue $1,000,000 of bonds, in aid of the work. The citizens of Dutchess county are able, and it is understood willing, to go on immediately with forty miles of the road; so that a good road will speedily be in operation, connecting the cities of Albany and New York. The proposal for a bridge over the Hudson river, at Albany, has been rejected in the legislature by the interests of Troy; which, it is supposed, will be injured by allowing the vast land travel and trade, which crosses the river at Albany, a direct passage across the river. As it is, however, the great desideratum of an open communication to New York, by which supplies of produce may constantly find their way to market through the winter months, and the early supplies of new goods return to meet the wants of the interior, is secured. As the veto message of the governor of New York involves a starting point, from which the future financial policy of the state may be indicated, it may be well, here, to record its leading points. Under the policy which existed prior to 1842, the debt of the state was rapidly accumulated, and had already become an annual charge in excess of the means of the state to meet, from its regular resources. In consequence of this, the legislature decided upon the severe measure of

stopping all the public works, and ceasing to issue any more stock than was absolutely necessary to pay floating debts, and satisfy the contractors. For these latter purposes, a 7 per cent stock was created, and a mill tax levied upon the citizens to meet the interest. At the same time, a sinking fund was created, for the purpose of redeeming the whole state debt in 22½ years. The first section of that law provides as follows:—

"The surplus canal revenue, after paying all just canal current expenses, and the interest on the canal debt, and the payment aforesaid to the general fund, shall, to an amount at least equal to one-third of the interest of the canal debt remaining unpaid, be sacredly devoted and applied as a sinking fund to the redemption of the canal debt now existing, and authorized by this act; and shall not be diverted from that object to any other purpose whatsoever."

The state debt, at the date of this law, was $20,710,335, bearing an actual annual interest of $1,127,728. One-third this amount, $375,909, is the fixed sum which the law requires annually to be appropriated to the sinking fund. These annual contributions, with the interest that accumulates upon them, will, in twenty-two and a half years, discharge the whole debt. If, however, the annual contributions are suffered to be deficient, it is clear that the purpose of the law cannot be fulfilled. Now, the whole surplus of the canal revenues, after paying all current expenses, did not, for the years 1842–43, amount to the required sum. For 1842, the surplus was only $68,504 61; and in 1843, $255,762 09. For the year 1844, the excess was as follows:—

Revenues of canal fund,.....	$3,250,615 94
Current expenses,.....	1,778,970 59
Surplus,.....	$572,645 35

This exceeds the one-third required by the contribution of the current year $196,736; but, as the contribution to the sinking fund, for the two previous years, was deficient to more than this amount, there was no actual surplus under the law. The sinking fund, as proposed by the law, and as it actually exists, is as follows:—

Years.	Contribution req'd.	Int'st added.	Actual fund.	Interest added.
1842,.....	$375,909	$375,909	$68,504 61	$68,504 61
1843,.....	375,909	394,704	255,762 09	258,187 09
1844,.....	375,909	414,439	572,645 35	585,550 35
Total,....		$1,185,052		$912,242 05

Thus, after carrying the whole surplus of last year to the sinking fund, there remains still a deficit, as required by the law, of $172,810, instead of an assumed surplus of $197,000. Now, on the assumption of this surplus, which did not exist, and if it had, is now solemnly pledged, on the state faith, to other purposes, the legislature passed a law appropriating it to the general resumption of the vast unfinished state works; to complete which involves an expenditure of at least $40,000,000. The clause of the law throwing the door open to these general expenditures, is as follows:—

4. "*And for the purpose of completing the construction of such portions of the unfinished work on the said canal as the canal commissioners shall be of opinion will be the most economical for the interest of the state:*"—

"Twenty thousand dollars to be expended upon the Black River canal, south of Boonville, *for the same objects as those specified in relation to the Genesee Valley canal;* and twenty thousand dollars to be expended upon the Black River canal, north of Boonville, *for the same objects.*"

This law appropriating money which did not exist, in violation of a solemn pledge of the state faith, was promptly vetoed by the governor; thus settling the policy of the state in relation to new loans, or the resumption of state works, until the present debt shall have been discharged.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT OF THE COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1844.

We have at length received the annual statement of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for the year ending June 30th, 1844. It was communicated to Congress on the 20th of February, 1845, by George M. Bibb, then Secretary of the Treasury; and on the 22d, two days after, ordered to be printed—so that only about ten weeks* has elapsed, since the manuscript was put into the hands of the printer. Either our suggestions, made in former numbers of this Magazine, have had the desired effect, or the present administration has voluntarily caused the printing of the document to be expedited. Heretofore, instead of little more than two months, six or eight have elapsed, after the document was put into the hands of the printer, before it made its appearance. Now if Mr. Walker, who has the reputation of great energy and efficiency of character, will take measures to have the statement for the year ending June 30th, 1845, ready at the opening of the next session of Congress, in December, it can be printed, and laid on the table of members of Congress early in February, 1846, long before Congress adjourns.

It appears, from the statement, that the exports during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1844, have amounted to $111,200,046; of which $99,715,179 were of domestic, and $11,484,867 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, $69,706,375 were exported in American vessels, and $30,008,804 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, $8,744,154 were exported in American vessels, and $2,740,713 in foreign vessels. The imports during the year ending on the 30th June, 1844, have amounted to $108,435,035; of which there were imported in American vessels $94,174,673; and in foreign vessels $14,260,362. 1,977,438 tons of American shipping entered, and 2,010,924 tons cleared, from the ports of the United States; 916,992 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 906,814 tons cleared, during the same period.

The registered tonnage, as corrected at this office, is stated at.....	1,068,764.91
The enrolled and licensed tonnage, at.....	1,173,537.38
And fishing vessels, at.....	37,792.68
Tons,.....	2,280,095.07
Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to.....	2,280,095.07
There were employed in the whale fishery,.....	168,293.63

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States, during the year ending on the 30th June, 1844, was—

Registered,.....	38,921.18
Enrolled,.....	64,616.11
Tons,.....	103,537.29

In accordance with our custom, we now proceed to lay before our readers the tables derived from the official statement, which furnish a very full view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for the year ending June 30th, 1844. We thought it best to give complete statements, in a compressed form, although occupying so much space, and to the exclusion of other matters, prepared for this number, as the tables would be more convenient for present and future reference, than if scattered over two or three numbers of the Magazine.

* Received May 6th, 1845.

Domestic Exports of the United States to each Foreign Country, in 1844.

The following table exhibits the value of merchandise, etc., of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported to each foreign country, designating the value to each country, and to the dominions of each power—also, the value exported in American and foreign vessels.

Value of Domestic Exports of the United States, for the year ending June 30, 1844.

Whither exported.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	To each country.	To each power.
Russia,	$289,345	$125,537	$414,882	$414,882
Prussia,	10,385	184,221	194,606	194,606
Sweden and Norway,	6,756	211,114	217,870	281,754
Swedish West Indies,	58,202	5,682	63,884	
Denmark,	19,259	81,600	100,859	884,051
Danish West Indies,	776,456	6,736	783,192	
Hanse Towns,	614,546	2,559,937	3,174,483	3,174,483
Holland,	1,575,294	942,627	2,517,921	
Dutch East Indies,	98,313	.....	98,313	2,986,652
Dutch West Indies,	303,438	.....	303,438	
Dutch Guiana,	66,980	.....	68,980	
Belgium,	759,326	1,093,245	1,852,571	1,852,571
England,	28,372,818	17,442,124	45,814,942	
Scotland,	699,784	1,236,807	1,936,591	
Ireland,	5,461	37,130	42,591	
Gibraltar,	440,481	61,981	502,462	
Malta,	9,752	.....	9,752	
British East Indies,	338,413	.....	338,413	58,737,307
Cape of Good Hope,	82,938	.....	82,938	
Australia,	29,667	.....	29,667	
Honduras,	189,582	7,913	197,495	
British Guiana,	217,541	89,511	307,052	
British West Indies,	3,376,399	737,819	4,114,218	
British American colonies,	2,543,761	2,817,425	5,361,186	
France on the Atlantic,	10,588,074	1,273,345	11,861,419	
France on the Mediterranean,	1,187,653	17,140	1,204,793	
French West Indies,	518,447	63,121	581,568	13,724,237
French Guiana,	56,006	.....	56,006	
Miquelon and French fisheries,	3,484	.....	3,484	
Bourbon, &c.,	16,967	.....	16,967	
Spain on the Atlantic,	568,999	632	569,631	
Spain on the Mediterranean,	15,766	.....	15,766	
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	13,257	1,236	14,493	5,632,683
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	91,769	.....	91,769	
Cuba,	4,101,523	202,539	4,305,062	
Other Spanish West Indies,	623,114	13,848	636,962	
Portugal,	97,547	2,006	99,553	
Madeira,	41,808	2,955	44,763	228,800
Fayal, and other Azores,	19,246	.....	19,246	
Cape de Verd islands,	65,238	.....	65,238	
Italy,	256,806	61,760	318,566	318,566
Sardinia,	73,818	18,704	92,522	92,522
Sicily,	11,376	64,248	75,624	75,624
Trieste, &c.,	958,755	298,530	1,257,285	1,257,285
Turkey, Levant, &c.,	186,139	.....	186,139	186,139
Hayti,	1,072,911	9,896	1,082,807	1,082,807
Texas,	149,002	47,445	196,447	196,447
Mexico,	1,249,376	43,376	1,292,752	1,292,752
Central Republic of America,	89,947	13,430	103,377	103,377
New Granada,	71,773	3,848	75,621	75,621
Venezuela,	405,816	36,675	442,491	442,491
Brazil,	2,324,397	85,021	2,409,418	2,409,418
Cisplatine Republic,	365,642	28,624	394,266	394,266
Argentine Republic,	221,153	24,186	245,339	245,339
Chili,	856,645	.....	856,645	856,645

VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

Peru,	$14,053	.....	$14,053	$14,053
China,	1,110,023	.....	1,110,023	1,110,023
West Indies, generally,	173,460	.....	173,460	173,460
South America, generally,	125,938	.....	125,938	125,938
Europe, generally,	28,700	.....	28,700	28,700
Asia, generally,	173,021	.....	173,021	173,021
Africa, generally,	586,476	$54,830	641,306	641,306
South Seas and Pacific Ocean,	307,353	.....	307,353	307,353
Total,	$69,706,375	$30,008,804	$99,715,179	$99,715,179

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCE, AND MANUFACTURE OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING ON THE 30TH DAY OF JUNE, 1844.

The Sea.

Fisheries:—	
Dried fish, or cod,	$699,836
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, mackerel, salmon, shad,)	197,179
Whale and other fish oil,	1,464,968
Spermaceti oil,	344,930
Whalebone,	463,096
Spermaceti candles,	180,492
	$3,350,501

The Forest.

Skins and furs,	$742,196
Ginseng,	95,008
Product of wood:—	
Staves, shingles, boards, etc.	1,672,279
Other lumber,	326,945
Masts and spars,	23,274
Oak bark, and other dye,	70,370
All manufac. of wood,	919,100
Naval stores—tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,	818,692
Ashes, pot and pearl,	1,140,848
	$5,808,712

Agriculture.

Product of animals:—	
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,	$1,810,551
Butter and cheese,	758,829
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,	3,236,479
Horses and mules,	315,696
Sheep,	27,824
Vegetable food:—	
Wheat,	500,400
Flour,	6,759,488
Indian corn,	404,008
Indian meal,	641,029
Rye meal,	104,391
Rye, oats, and other grain,	133,477
Biscuit, or ship-bread,	388,603
Potatoes,	74,108
Apples,	51,465
Rice,	2,182,468
	$17,388,816

Agriculture—Continued.

Tobacco,	$8,397,255
Cotton,	54,063,501
All oth. agric'ral products:—	
Flaxseed,	23,749
Hops,	51,550
Brown sugar,	12,363
Indigo,	1,176
	$62,549,594

Manufactures.

Soap and tallow candles,	$619,544
Leather, boots and shoes,	204,000
Household furniture,	327,988
Coaches, and other carriages,	63,931
Hats,	75,649
Saddlery,	34,552
Wax,	278,039
Spirits from grain,	56,697
Beer, ale, porter, and cider,	59,312
Snuff and tobacco,	536,600
Lead,	595,238
Linseed oil, and sp. turp.,	68,476
Cordage,	49,242
Iron—bar, pig, and nails,	133,522
" Castings,	54,598
" All manufactures of,	528,212
Spirits from molasses,	241,604
Sugar, refined,	128,594
Chocolate,	2,150
Gunpowder,	130,923
Copper and brass,	91,446
Medicinal drugs,	166,805
	$4,447,072
Cotton piece goods:—	
Printed and colored,	$385,403
White,	2,298,800
Twist, yarn, and thread,	44,421
All manufactures of,	170,156
	$2,898,780
Flax and hemp—bags, and all manufactures of,	$311
Wearing apparel,	117,570
Combs and buttons,	30,778
Brushes,	5,962
Billiard tables and apparatus,	2,534

STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF THE EXPORTS, etc.—Continued.

Manufactures—Continued.	
Umbrellas and parasols,.....	$6,514
Leather and morocco skins, not sold per pound,.....	39,197
Printing-presses and type,....	36,243
Musical instruments,.....	17,050
Books and maps,.....	42,432
Paper and stationery,.....	83,108
Paints and varnish,.....	44,060
Vinegar,.....	8,315
Earthen and stone-ware,.....	4,884
Manuf. of glass,.....	77,860
" tin,.....	6,421
" pewter and lead,.	10,018
" marble and stone,	19,135
" gold & silver, and gold leaf,.....	2,638

Manufactures—Continued.	
Gold and silver coin,.....	183,405
Artificial flowers and jewelry,	6,761
Molasses,.....	3,922
Trunks,.....	7,481
Bricks and lime,.....	12,833
Domestic salt,.....	47,755
	$3,715,967
Articles not enumerated:—	
Manufactured,.....	$1,600,090
Other articles,.....	854,427
	$2,454,517
Grand total of exports,....	$99,715,179

RECAPITULATION.

The Sea,.....	$3,350,501	Tobacco,.....	$8,397,255
The Forest,.....	5,808,712	Cotton,.....	54,063,501
Agriculture,.....	6,149,379	Other agricul. products,....	88,838
Vegetable food,.....	11,239,437	Manufactures,.....	10,617,556

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE U. STATES TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, IN 1844.

The following table exhibits the value of foreign merchandise exported from the United States to each country, in American and foreign vessels; showing also the value free of duty, paying duties ad valorem, and specific duties.

Whither exported.	Free of duty. *Dollars.*	Pay'g dut. ad val. *Dollars.*	Paying spec. dut. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	In Amer. vessels. *Dollars.*	In foreign vessels. *Dollars.*
Russia,.....	97,737	8,498	34,297	140,532	119,448	21,084
Prussia,.....	23,968	.....	.....	23,968	.....	23,968
Sweden and Norway,....	10,129	749	1,353	12,231	1,715	10,516
Swedish West Indies,....	1,360	.....	.....	1,360	1,360	.....
Denmark,.....	10,354	869	752	11,975	4,288	7,687
Danish West Indies,.....	27,273	29,281	30,576	87,130	84,647	2,483
Hanse Towns,.....	161,955	131,530	98,719	392,204	60,551	331,653
Holland,.....	97,065	68,396	15,562	181,023	102,382	78,641
Dutch East Indies,.....	249,010	3,002	9,058	261,070	261,070	.....
Dutch West Indies,.....	5,953	5,978	7,917	19,848	19,848	.....
Dutch Guiana,.....	.....	1,507	3,285	4,792	4,792	.....
Belgium,.....	109,751	19,761	21,718	151,230	40,705	110,525
England,.....	267,438	214,942	642,834	1,125,214	108,642	1,016,572
Scotland,.....	4,929	8,383	3,570	16,882	2,710	14,172
Gibraltar,.....	59,688	2,880	14,853	77,421	74,921	2,500
Malta,.....	2,330	355	4,561	7,246	7,246	.....
British East Indies,.....	312,493	15,955	9,105	337,553	337,553	.....
Honduras,.....	8,036	20,962	12,526	41,524	41,524	.....
British Guiana,.....	98	.....	2,086	2,184	1,956	228
British West Indies,.....	5,989	1,991	13,848	21,828	5,225	16,603
Brit. American colonies,.	1,241,507	52,804	60,406	1,354,717	1,048,592	306,125
France on the Atlantic,..	2,091,188	69,748	126,148	2,287,084	2,060,119	226,965
France on the Mediter.,.	71,386	7,171	6,547	85,104	85,104	.....
French West Indies,.....	12,051	1,216	22,711	35,978	14,193	21,785
French Guiana,.....	322	.....	711	1,033	1,033	.....
Spain on the Atlantic,....	17,743	.....	6,065	23,808	23,808	.....
Spain on the Mediter.,....	23,340	.....	.....	23,340	23,340	.....
Teneriffe & oth. Canaries,	412	.....	600	1,042	1,042	.....
Manilla, and Phil. islands,	129,335	.....	1,893	131,228	131,228	.....
Cuba,.....	602,298	126,057	206,178	934,533	928,187	6,346
Other Span. West Indies,	981	492	3,704	5,177	5,177	.....
Portugal,.....	1,628	1,937	.....	3,565	3,565	.....

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

Whither exported.	Free of duty. *Dollars.*	Pay'g dut. ad val. *Dollars.*	Pay'g specific duties. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	In Amer. vessels. *Dollars.*	In for. vessels. *Dollars.*
Madeira,	7,168	.....	355	7,523	7,523	.....
Fayal, and other Azores,	2,476	793	3,714	6,983	6,983	.....
Cape de Verd islands,	964	.....	4,335	5,299	5,299	.....
Italy,	129,062	86,553	42,642	258,257	123,633	134,624
Sicily,	52,230	75,522	150,940	278,692	.....	278,692
Trieste, &c.,	81,046	20,449	67,240	168,735	94,512	74,223
Turkey, &c.,	93,856	112	3,277	97,245	97,245	.....
Hayti,	7,938	28,534	9,077	45,549	45,549	.....
Texas,	22,097	33,657	25,347	81,101	57,318	23,783
Mexico,	25,713	307,125	169,243	502,081	494,083	7,998
Cent. Republic of Amer.,	1,609	33,619	11,671	46,899	43,931	2,968
New Granada,	4,416	27,824	16,985	49,225	49,225	.....
Venezuela,	53,874	19,091	15,776	88,741	84,121	4,620
Brazil,	257,898	50,883	100,053	408,834	404,770	4,064
Cisplatine Republic,	45,064	8,335	14,511	67,910	67,110	800
Argentine Republic,	184,514	14,509	59,927	258,950	248,235	10,715
Chili,	7,521	153,620	87,435	248,576	248,576	.....
Peru,	.....	.....	2,754	2,754	2,754	.....
China,	606,267	9,162	31,489	646,918	646,918	.....
West Indies, generally,	7,918	.....	70	7,988	7,988	.....
Asia, generally,	251,169	7,017	31,455	289,641	289,641	.....
Africa, generally,	23,928	16,683	28,327	68,938	68,565	373
South Seas, and P. ocean,	7,389	16,803	17,834	42,026	42,026	.....
N. W. Coast of America,	465	1,451	262	2,178	2,178	.....
Total,	7,522,359	1,706,206	2,256,302	11,484,867	8,744,154	2,740,713
Entitled to drawback,	.....	1,412,200	2,107,560	3,519,760	1,977,800	1,541,960
Not entitled to drawback,	7,522,359	294,006	148,742	7,965,107	6,766,354	1,198,753

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH OF JUNE, 1844.

The following statement of the value of the merchandise, etc., of the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, imported, distinguishes the same admitted free, and paying specific and ad valorem duties. Also, the value in American and in foreign vessels.

Whence imp'd.	Free of duty. *Dollars.*	Pay'g dut. ad valorem. *Dollars.*	Paying specific dut. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	In American vessels. *Dollars.*	In foreign vessels. *Dollars.*
Russia,	109,390	293,584	656,445	1,059,419	1,036,596	22,823
Prussia,	.....	7,657	4,952	12,609	12,417	192
Swed. & Norway,	123	16,705	405,006	421,834	39,382	382,452
Swed. W. Indies,	22,559	212	948	23,719	23,719	.....
Danish W. Indies,	173,020	116,054	335,373	624,447	622,945	1,502
Denmark,	.....	273	5,790	6,063	5,790	273
Hanse Towns,	91,074	1,865,291	120,021	2,136,386	88,310	2,048,076
Holland,	594,429	333,670	381,982	1,310,081	860,001	450,080
Dutch E. Indies,	663,044	138,076	134,864	935,984	935,984	.....
Dutch W. Indies,	101,909	158,740	125,634	386,283	386,283	.....
Dutch Guiana,	59	19	49,066	49,144	49,144	.....
Belgium,	37,283	554,460	43,034	634,777	430,574	204,203
England,	2,267,482	33,212,979	5,995,690	41,476,081	35,173,564	6,302,517
Scotland,	10,300	335,560	181,379	527,239	245,731	281,508
Ireland,	258	42,847	44,979	88,084	4,236	83,848
Gibraltar,	14,275	10,414	19,585	44,274	44,274	.....
Malta,	.....	15	.....	15	.....	15
Brit. East Indies,	181,196	462,410	239,186	882,792	882,792	.....
Brit. West Indies,	438,222	70,719	178,965	687,906	463,304	224,602
Brit. Am. colonies,	710,924	309,613	445,178	1,465,715	938,174	527,541
Brit. Honduras,	150,546	30,366	67,431	248,343	245,153	3,190
Brit. Guiana,	8,681	64	640	9,385	9,001	384

IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, etc.—Continued.

Whence imported.	Free of duty. *Dollars.*	Pay'g dut. ad val. *Dollars.*	Pay'g spec. duties. *Dollars.*	Total. *Dollars.*	In Amer. vessels. *Dollars.*	In for'gn vessels. *Dollars.*
Cape of G. Hope,	8,060	20,675	431	29,166	11,790	17,376
Australia,	.....	122	.....	122	122	.....
Fr'nce on Atl'ntic,	766,868	7,621,803	7,557,494	15,946,166	15,507,935	438,231
France on Medit.,	795,460	542,317	265,541	1,603,318	1,155,661	447,657
French Guiana,	2,167	2,701	23,365	28,233	28,233	.....
French W. Indies,	257,012	5,207	112,476	374,695	343,248	31,447
Spain on Atlantic,	6,805	55,459	189,863	252,127	214,294	37,833
Spain on Medit.,	32,056	40,992	308,189	381,237	322,491	58,746
Teneriffe,	51,895	.....	9,758	61,653	52,050	9,603
Manilla,	69,488	79,064	576,259	724,811	724,811	.....
Cuba,	1,661,291	652,498	7,616,632	9,930,421	9,823,521	106,900
Other Sp. W. Ind.,	72,974	45,654	2,306,574	2,425,202	2,395,185	30,017
Portugal,	16,082	4,428	179,195	199,705	187,805	11,900
Madeira,	1,645	2,532	18,727	22,904	22,904	.....
Fayal,	2,668	8,074	18,828	29,570	26,342	3,228
Cape de Verds,	3,200	600	1,036	4,836	4,836	.....
Italy,	97,085	707,248	292,593	1,096,926	793,993	302,933
Sicily,	72,122	286,871	103,780	462,773	322,661	140,112
Trieste,	40;777	43,325	147,987	232,089	150,711	81,378
Turkey,	52,955	196,587	136,324	385,866	272,008	113,858
Morocco,	.....	1,176	4,700	5,876	5,876	.....
Hayti,	1,242,976	179,723	18,545	1,441,244	1,425,260	15,984
Texas,	11,066	20,406	647,079	678,551	642,633	35,918
Mexico,	2,000,096	345,942	40,964	2,387,002	2,318,476	68,526
Cen. Rep. of Am.,	56,418	52,407	114,583	223,408	212,780	10,628
New Granada,	89,146	84,803	15,667	189,616	189,616	.....
Venezuela,	833,461	299,429	302,589	1,435,479	1,322,716	112,763
Brazil,	5,856,558	839,879	187,369	6,883,806	5,523,738	1,360,068
Cisplatine Repub.,	22,088	122,630	45	144,763	122,703	22,060
Argentine Repub.,	1,052	1,356,474	63,666	1,421,192	1,241,696	179,496
Chili,	582,915	137,733	29,722	750,370	750,370	.....
Peru,	47,810	68,064	68,550	184,424	184,424	.....
China,	4,124,086	325,291	481,878	4,931,255	4,876,144	55,111
Asia, generally,	16,051	18,484	373	34,908	34,908	.....
Africa, generally,	295,863	148,996	14,378	459,237	423,854	35,383
South Seas,	1,910	37,969	1,625	41,504	41,504	.....
Total,	24,766,881	52,315,291	31,352,863	108,435,035	94,174,673	14,260,362

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, WITH THEIR TONNAGE, WHICH CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES FOR FOREIGN COUNTRIES, FROM THE 1ST JULY, 1843, TO THE 30TH JUNE, 1844.

For	*American.* No.	*American.* Tons.	*Foreign.* No.	*Foreign.* Tons.	*Tot. Am. and For.* No.	*Tot. Am. and For.* Tons.
Russia,	20	6,308	6	1,981	26	8,289
Prussia,	1	164	21	5,009	22	5,173
Sweden,	.....	.....	20	4,629	20	4,629
Swedish West Indies,	11	1,478	1	141	12	1,619
Denmark,	2	481	13	2,567	15	3,048
Danish West Indies,	154	24,548	3	363	157	24,911
Holland,	65	23,786	61	16,589	126	40,375
Dutch East Indies,	12	4,656	1	251	13	4,907
Dutch West Indies,	43	4,981	1	89	44	5,070
Dutch Guiana,	38	7,363	.....	.....	38	7,363
Belgium,	21	8,148	59	18,339	80	26,487
Hanse Towns,	32	12,749	139	50,656	171	63,405
England,	547	311,746	350	192,583	897	504,329
Scotland,	20	7,849	30	13,418	50	21,297
Ireland,	1	191	2	786	3	977
Gibraltar,	60	13,873	12	2,573	72	16,446
Malta,	3	611	.....	.....	3	611

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS CLEARED FROM U. STATES, etc.—Continued.

For	*American.* No.	Tons.	*Foreign.* No.	Tons.	*Tot. Am. and For.* No.	Tons.
British East Indies,	24	10,479	.....	.....	24	10,479
British African ports,	1	129	1	127	2	256
Australia,	1	415	.. ...	.....	1	415
Mauritius,	3	683	.....	.....	3	683
Cape of Good Hope,	5	1,689	.....	.....	5	1,689
British West Indies,	779	123,501	252	26,854	1,031	150,355
British Guiana,	74	10,470	27	2,868	101	13,338
Honduras,	57	7,914	4	307	61	8,221
Canada,	2,664	665,852	1,902	312,377	4,566	978,229
New Brunswick, &c.,	220	31,013	2,361	203,854	2,581	234,867
France on the Atlantic,	219	109,327	43	15,989	262	125,316
France on the Mediterranean,	58	17,868	2	656	60	18,524
French West Indies,	236	37,375	9	2,253	245	39,628
French Guiana,	15	2,322	.....	.....	15	2,322
Miquelon and French fisheries,	37	4,105	7	576	44	4,681
French African ports,	.....	.....	7	862	7	862
Hayti,	215	26,710	3	649	218	27,359
Spain on the Atlantic,	36	10,427	1	135	37	10,562
Spain on the Mediterranean,	4	865	.....	.....	4	865
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	4	861	1	148	5	1,009
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	13	6,233	.....	.....	13	6,233
Cuba,	1,254	224,618	42	7,588	1,296	232,206
Other Spanish West Indies,	180	28,143	4	683	184	28,826
Portugal,	29	5,743	1	172	30	5,915
Madeira,	12	2,404	1	122	13	2,526
Fayal, and the other Azores,	7	1,115	.....	.....	7	1,115
Cape de Verd islands,	11	1,697	2	382	13	2,079
Italy,	8	2,340	4	941	12	3,281
Sicily,	4	1,045	14	3,286	18	4,331
Sardinia,	15	4,395	6	1,581	21	5,976
Trieste,	28	10,597	14	3,918	42	14,515
Turkey,	12	2,773	.....	.....	12	2,773
Texas,	82	20,065	15	1,779	97	21,844
Mexico,	166	22,636	21	1,804	187	24,440
Central America,	15	2,251	1	120	16	2,371
Venezuela,	64	8,835	12	1,839	76	10,674
New Granada,	12	1,691	.....	.....	12	1,691
Brazil,	225	46,250	8	1,816	233	48,066
Argentine Republic,	19	4,833	3	566	22	5,399
Cisplatine Republic,	54	12,519	5	1,159	59	13,678
Chili,	20	7,247	.....	.....	20	7,247
Peru,	2	404	.....	.....	2	404
China,	27	11,262	.....	.....	27	11,262
Europe, generally,	.....	.....	3	604	3	604
Asia, generally,	15	4,542	.....	.....	15	4,542
Africa, generally,	51	9,878	2	257	53	10,135
West Indies, generally,	128	15,425	2	168	130	15,593
Sandwich islands,	7	1,972	.....	.....	7	1,972
Atlantic Ocean,	38	6,787	.....	.....	38	6,787
South Seas,	161	51,620	1	400	162	52,020
Northwest Coast of America,	2	667	.....	.....	2	667
Total,	8,343	2,010,924	5,500	906,814	13,843	2,917,738

NUMBER OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, WITH THEIR TONNAGE, WHICH ENTERED INTO THE U. STATES FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES, FROM JULY 1, 1843, TO JUNE 30, 1844.

From	*American.* No.	Tons.	*Foreign.* No.	Tons.	*Tot. Am. and For.* No.	Tons.
Russia,	45	14,656	2	736	47	15,392
Prussia,	2	442	9	2,148	11	2,590
Sweden,	5	1,180	40	11,212	45	12,392
Swedish West Indies,	6	763	.....	.....	6	763
Denmark,	1	228	1	172	2	400

AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS ENTERED THE U. STATES, etc.—Continued.

For	*American.* No.	Tons.	*Foreign.* No.	Tons.	*Total Am. and For.* No.	Tons.
Danish West Indies,	157	23,789	10	2,482	167	26,271
Holland,	72	27,577	23	5,240	95	32,817
Dutch East Indies,	9	3.341	.....	.....	9	3,341
Dutch West Indies,	122	17,530	1	662	123	18,192
Dutch Guiana,	34	6,602	.....	.....	34	6,602
Belgium,	51	18,882	18	5,587	69	24,469
Hanse Towns,	63	20,729	121	43,566	184	64,295
England,	524	292,330	371	197,465	895	489,795
Scotland,	18	7,838	38	18,876	56	26,714
Ireland,	3	1,347	48	23,939	51	25,286
Gibraltar,	14	4,036	6	2,413	20	6,449
Malta,	1	396	1	410	2	806
British East Indies,	16	7,140	.....	.....	16	7,140
British African ports,	.....	.....	2	458	2	458
Australia,	3	986	.....	.....	3	986
Cape of Good Hope,	1	213	1	250	2	463
British West Indies,	498	76,315	316	40,956	814	117,271
British Guiana,	34	4,845	37	6,860	71	11,705
Honduras,	41	5,991	4	558	45	6,549
Canada,	2,709	689,355	1,933	307,941	4,642	997,296
New Brunswick, &c.,	256	33,907	2,260	165,981	2,516	199,888
Other British colonies,	1	325	.....	.....	1	325
France on the Atlantic,	224	109,066	25	8,980	249	118,046
France on the Mediterranean,	52	18,133	13	3,933	65	22,066
French West Indies,	154	24,645	36	10,924	190	35,569
French Guiana,	9	1,313	2	222	11	1,535
Miquelon, and French fisheries,	5	580	.....	.....	5	580
Hayti,	237	30,182	2	307	239	30,489
Spain on the Atlantic,	39	13,413	7	2,098	46	15,511
Spain on the Mediterranean,	40	8,542	17	4,834	57	13,376
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	13	2,306	2	302	15	2,608
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	16	6,636	.....	.....	16	636
Cuba,	1,252	209,322	37	5,205	1,289	214,527
Other Spanish West Indies,	339	50,807	3	511	342	51,318
Portugal,	22	5,121	8	2,471	30	7,592
Madeira,	4	914	.....	.....	4	914
Fayal, and the other Azores,	6	1,119	1	102	7	1,221
Cape de Verd islands,	4	659	1	105	5	764
Italy,	21	5,245	7	1,963	28	7,208
Sicily,	56	14,161	26	7,004	82	21,165
Sardinia,	7	2,536	4	922	11	3,458
Trieste,	15	5,464	3	1,006	18	6,470
Turkey,	12	2,803	5	1,091	17	3,894
Texas,	78	19,019	15	1,876	93	20,895
Mexico,	185	24,934	30	4,170	215	29,104
Central America,	16	2,547	1	119	17	2,666
Venezuela,	86	11,601	10	1,498	96	13,099
New Granada,	14	2,146	.....	.....	14	2,146
Brazil,	225	48,550	61	14,802	286	63,352
Argentine Republic,	50	11,668	8	2,008	58	13,676
Cisplatine Republic,	2	445	3	615	5	1,060
Chili,	8	3,206	.....	.....	8	3,206
Peru,	2	551	.....	.....	2	551
South America, generally,	1	95	.....	.....	1	95
China,	32	15,035	1	364	33	15,399
Asia, generally,	2	591	.....	.....	2	591
Africa, generally,	48	8,953	7	1,648	55	10,601
Sandwich islands,	4	1,245	.....	.....	4	1,245
Atlantic Ocean,	32	5,121	.....	.....	32	5,121
South Seas,	149	47,723	.....	.....	149	47,723
Northwest Coast of America,	1	298	.....	.....	1	298
Total,	8,148	1,977,438	5,577	916,992	13,725	2,894,430

NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED THE UNITED STATES, IN 1844.

National Character.	*Entered.* No.	Tons.	*Cleared.* No.	Tons.
Austrian,	3	1,033	2	565
Belgian,	7	2,209	9	2,867
British,	5,030	766,747	4,953	756,669
French,	55	17,257	54	17,863
Spanish,	46	6,974	47	7,105
Hanseatic,	155	52,669	156	53,814
Hanoverian,	10	2,027	9	1,724
Russian,	5	1,894	8	2,675
Prussian,	21	5,526	21	5,155
Swedish,	110	34,706	108	33,097
Norwegian,	26	7,076	20	5,885
Dutch,	13	2,501	10	1,835
Portuguese,	1	102	.....	.....
Neapolitan,	2	445	3	668
Sicilian,	16	3,850	17	4,139
Sardinian,	6	1,317	5	945
Texan,	12	1,426	15	1,779
Mexican,	15	1,493	13	1,146
Colombian,	1	49	2	109
Venezuelan,	11	1,559	11	1,539
Buenos Ayrean,	1	306	1	306
Danish,	31	5,896	36	6,929
Total,	5,577	916,992	5,500	906,814

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, EXHIBITING THE VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM, AND EXPORTS TO, EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, FROM THE 1ST OF JULY, 1843, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1844.

Countries.	*Value of Exports.* Dom. produce.	For. produce.	Total.	Value of imports.
Russia,	$414,882	$140,532	$555,414	$1,059,419
Prussia,	194,606	23,968	218,574	12,609
Sweden and Norway,	217,870	12,231	230,101	421,834
Swedish West Indies,	63,884	1,360	65,244	23,719
Denmark,	100,859	11,975	112,834	6,063
Danish West Indies,	783,192	87,130	870,322	624,447
Holland,	2,517,921	181,023	2,698,944	1,310,081
Dutch East Indies,	98,313	261,070	359,383	935,984
Dutch West Indies,	303,438	19,848	323,286	386,283
Dutch Guiana,	66,980	4,792	71,772	49,144
Belgium,	1,852,571	151,230	2,003,801	634,777
Hanse Towns,	3,174,483	392,204	3,566,687	2,136,386
England,	45,814,942	1,125,214	46,940,156	41,476,081
Scotland,	1,936,591	16,882	1,953,473	527,239
Ireland,	42,591	.....	42,591	88,084
Gibraltar,	502,462	77,421	579,883	44,274
Malta,	9,752	7,246	16,998	15
British East Indies,	338,413	337,553	675,966	882,792
British African ports,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Australia,	29,667	.....	29,667	122
Mauritius,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cape of Good Hope,	82,938	.....	82,938	29,166
British West Indies,	4,114,218	21,828	4,136,046	687,906
British Guiana,	307,052	2,184	309,236	9,385
Honduras,	197,495	41,524	239,019	248,343
British American colonies,	5,361,186	1,354,717	6,715,903	1,465,715
Other British colomes,	.....	.....	.....	.....
France on the Atlantic,	11,861,419	2,287,084	14,148,503	15,946,166
France on the Mediterranean,	1,204,793	85,104	1,289,897	1,603 318
French West Indies,	581,568	35,978	617,546	374,695
French Guiana,	56,006	1,033	57,039	28,233

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

Countries.	*Value of Exports.* Dom. produce.	For. produce.	Total.	Value of imports.
Miquelon, and French fisheries,	$3,484	.....	$3,484	.....
Bourbon,	16,967	.....	16,967	.....
French African ports,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Spain on the Atlantic,	569,631	$23,808	593,439	$252,127
Spain on the Mediterranean,	15,766	23,340	39,106	381,237
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	14,493	1,042	15,535	61,653
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	91,769	131,228	222,997	724,811
Cuba,	4,304,062	934,533	5,238,595	9,930,421
Other Spanish West Indies,	636,962	5,177	642,139	2,425,202
Portugal,	99,553	3,565	103,118	199,705
Madeira,	44,763	7,523	52,286	22,904
Fayal, and the other Azores,	19,246	6,983	26,229	29,570
Cape de Verd islands,	65,238	5,299	70,537	4,836
Italy,	318,566	258,257	576,823	1,096,226
Sicily,	75,624	278,692	354,316	462,773
Sardinia,	92,522	.....	92,522	.....
Trieste,	1,257,285	168,735	1,426,020	232,089
Turkey,	186,139	97,245	283,384	385,866
Texas,	196,447	81,101	277,548	678,551
Mexico,	1,292,752	502,081	1,794,833	2,387,002
Central America,	103,377	46,899	150,276	223,406
Venezuela,	442,491	88,741	531,232	1,435,479
New Granada,	75,621	49,225	124,846	189,616
Brazil,	2,409,418	408,834	2,818,252	6,883,806
Argentine Republic,	245,339	258,950	504,289	1,421,192
Cisplatine Republic,	394,266	67,910	462,176	144,763
Chili,	856,645	248,576	1,105,221	750,370
Peru,	14,053	2,754	16,807	184,424
South America, generally,	125,938	.....	125,938	.....
Hayti,	1,082,807	45,549	1,128,356	1,441,244
China,	1,110,023	646,918	1,756,941	4,931,255
Europe, generally,	28,700	.....	28,700	.....
Asia, generally,	173,021	289,641	462,662	34,908
Africa, generally,	641,306	68,938	710,244	459,237
Morocco,	.....	.....	.....	5,876
West Indies, generally,	173,460	7,988	181,448	.....
Sandwich islands,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Atlantic Ocean,	.....	.....	.....	.....
South Seas,	307,353	42,026	349,379	41,504
Northwest Coast of America,	.....	2,178	2,178	.....
Total,	$99,715,179	$11,484,867	$111,200,046	$108,435,035

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, EXHIBITING THE TONNAGE OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS ARRIVING FROM, AND DEPARTING TO, EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, FROM THE 1ST OF JULY, 1843, TO THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1844.

Countries.	*American Tonnage.* Cl'd from U. States.	Entered U. States.	*Foreign Tonnage.* Cl'd from U. States.	Entered U. States.
Russia,	6,308	14,656	1,981	736
Prussia,	164	442	5,009	2,148
Sweden and Norway,	.....	1,180	4,629	11,212
Swedish West Indies,	1,478	763	141	.....
Denmark,	481	228	2,567	172
Danish West Indies,	24,548	23,789	363	2,482
Holland,	23,786	27,577	16,589	5,240
Dutch East Indies,	4,656	3,341	251	.....
Dutch West Indies,	4,981	17,530	89	662
Dutch Guiana,	7,363	6,602	.....	.....
Belgium,	8,148	18,882	18,339	5,587
Hanse Towns,	12,749	20,729	50,656	43,566
England,	311,746	292,330	192,583	197,465

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, etc.—Continued.

Countries.	*American Tonnage.* Cl'd from U. States.	Entered U. States.	*Foreign Tonnage.* Cl'd from U. States.	Entered U. States.
Scotland,	7,849	7,838	13,418	18,876
Ireland,	191	1,347	786	23,939
Gibraltar,	13,873	4,036	2,573	2,413
Malta,	611	396	.....	410
British East Indies,	10,479	7,140	.....	.....
British African ports,	129	.....	127	458
Australia,	415	986	.....	.....
Mauritius,	683	.....	.....	.....
Cape of Good Hope,	1,689	213	.....	250
British West Indies,	123,501	76,315	26,854	40,356
British Guiana,	10,470	4,845	2,868	6,860
Honduras,	7,914	5,991	307	558
British American colonies,	696,865	723,262	516,231	473,922
Other British colonies,	.....	325	.....	.....
France on the Atlantic,	109,327	109,066	15,989	8,980
France on the Mediterranean,	17,868	18,133	656	3,933
French West Indies,	37,375	24,645	2,253	10,924
French Guiana,	2,322	1,313	.....	222
Miquelon, and French fisheries,	4,105	580	576	.....
Bourbon,	.....	.....	.....	.....
French African ports,	.....	.....	862	.....
Spain on the Atlantic,	10,427	13,413	135	2,098
Spain on the Mediterranean,	865	8,542	.....	4,834
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	861	2,306	148	302
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	6,233	6,636	.....	.....
Cuba,	224,618	209,322	7,588	5,205
Other Spanish West Indies,	28,143	50,807	683	511
Portugal,	5,743	5,121	172	2,471
Madeira,	2,404	914	122	.....
Fayal, and the other Azores,	1,115	1,119	.....	102
Cape de Verd islands,	1,697	659	382	105
Italy,	2,340	5,245	941	1,963
Sicily,	1,045	14,161	3,286	7,004
Sardinia,	4,395	2,536	1,581	922
Trieste,	10,597	5,464	3,918	1,006
Turkey,	2,773	2,803	.....	1,091
Texas,	20,065	19,019	1,779	1,876
Mexico,	22,636	24,934	1,804	4,170
Central America,	2,251	2,547	120	119
Venezuela,	8,835	11,601	1,839	1,498
New Granada,	1,691	2,146	.....	.....
Brazil,	46,250	48,550	1,816	14,802
Argentine Republic,	4,833	11,668	566	2,008
Cisplatine Republic,	12,519	445	1,159	615
Chili,	7,247	3,206	.....	.....
Peru,	404	551	.....	.....
South America, generally,	.....	95	.....	.....
Hayti,	26,710	30,182	649	307
China,	11,262	15,035	.....	364
Europe, generally,	.....	.....	604	.....
Asia, generally,	4,542	591	.....	.....
Africa, generally,	9,878	8,953	257	1,648
Morocco,	.....	.....	.....	.....
West Indies, generally,	15,425	.....	168	.....
Sandwich islands,	1,972	1,245	.....	.....
Atlantic Ocean,	6,787	5,121	.....	.....
South Seas,	51,620	47,723	400	.....
Northwest Coast of America,	667	298	.....	.....
Total,	2,010,924	1,977,438	906,814	916,992

Exports and Imports of each State, etc., in 1844.

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, from the 1st of July, 1843, to the 30th of June, 1844.

States and Territories.	Value of Exports.							Value of Imports.		
	Domestic produce.			Foreign produce.			Total of domestic and foreign produce.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.				
Maine,	$1,031,281	$133,683	$1,164,964	$246	$10,925	$11,171	$1,176,135	$500,242	$70,582	$570,824
N. Hampshire,	4,040	1,954	5,994	662	28	690	6,684	27,185	31,235	31,420
Vermont,	196,574	.....	196,574	216,793	.....	216,793	413,367	97,183	.....	97,183
Massachusetts,	5,734,949	636,887	6,371,836	2,371,973	352,477	2,724,450	9,096,286	15,444,060	4,851,947	20,296,007
Rhode Island,	202,608	54,994	257,602	3,175	.....	3,175	260,777	265,825	3,612	269,437
Connecticut,	745,773	52,952	798,725	1,291	.....	1,291	800,016	317,135	6,164	323,299
New York,	20,378,600	5,630,577	26,009,177	5,194,108	1,658,255	6,852,363	32,861,540	58,315,222	6,764,294	65,079,516
New Jersey,	13,889	.....	13,889	4,300	.....	4,300	18,189	.....	17,670	17,670
Pennsylvania,	3,032,598	232,429	3,265,027	251,491	18,738	270,229	3,535,256	6,833,300	383,967	7,217,267
Delaware,	125,771	.....	125,771	406	.....	406	126,177	8,093	.....	8,093
Maryland,	3,837,106	1,004,844	4,841,950	263,822	27,394	291,216	5,133,166	3,659,794	257,956	3,917,750
Dis. of Col.,	410,515	139,783	550,298	6,061	3,193	9,254	559,552	44,385	21,243	65,628
Virginia,	2,594,394	328,844	2,923,238	19,041	.....	19,041	2,942,279	226,328	41,326	267,654
N. Carolina,	263,440	34,961	298,401	.....	.....	.....	298,401	196,227	12,915	209,142
S. Carolina,	3,202,386	4,227,199	7,429,585	871	2,826	3,697	7,433,282	792,560	338,955	1,131,515
Georgia,	1,708,782	2,575,023	4,283,805	.....	.....	.....	4,283,805	213,701	91,933	305,634
Alabama,	4,970,470	4,935,755	9,906,195	.....	1,459	1,459	9,907,654	246,955	195,863	442,818
Louisiana,	20,324,093	9,118,641	29,442,734	409,761	645,812	1,055,573	30,498,307	6,693,573	1,133,216	7,826,789
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25,627	.....	25,627
Ohio,	97,954	445,902	543,856	.....	.....	.....	543,856	31,510	4,505	36,015
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	19,379	.....	19,379
Michigan,	293,901	.....	293,901	.....	.....	.....	293,901	120,673	.....	120,673
Florida Terr'y,	537,281	454,376	991,657	153	19,606	19,759	1,011,416	95,716	59,979	155,695
Total,	$69,706,375	$30,008,804	$99,715,179	$8,744,154	$2,740,713	$11,484,867	$111,200,046	$94,174,673	$14,260,362	$108,435,035

Tonnage Cleared from each State, etc., of the United States.

Statement of the Tonnage Cleared from each State and Territory, from the 1st of July, 1843, to the 30th of June, 1844.

States and Territories.	American.				Foreign.				Total American and Foreign.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,	503	91,020	3,756	174	754	61,929	3,409	38	1,257	152,949	7,165	212
New Hampshire,	2	201	9	1	90	4,515	202	.....	92	4,716	211	1
Vermont,	340	56,336	1,745	564	.....	.....	.....	.....	340	56,336	1,745	564
Massachusetts,	1,065	229,281	11,778	85	1,291	105,118	6,580	1	2,356	334,399	18,358	86
Rhode Island,	93	17,471	986	53	8	1,782	76	.....	101	19,253	1,062	53
Connecticut,	153	33,381	2,070	189	40	4,780	253	.....	193	38,161	2,323	189
New York,	3,579	978,813	53,664	1,696	2,213	414,625	31,515	588	5,792	1,393,438	85,179	2,284
New Jersey,	2	609	26	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	609	26	.....
Pennsylvania,	394	70,650	3,223	270	59	8,267	443	71	453	79,277	3,666	341
Delaware,	25	3,882	193	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	3,882	193	3
Maryland,	346	69,834	3,167	.....	111	21,905	1,211	.....	457	91,039	4,378	.....
Dis. of Columbia,	62	9,301	415	11	24	3,983	197	7	86	13,284	612	18
Virginia,	207	44,100	1,867	.....	29	7,343	333	.....	236	51,443	2,200	.....
North Carolina,	263	35,476	1,724	2	30	4,068	229	.....	293	39,544	1,953	2
South Carolina,	238	49,801	2,110	51	159	48,926	1,839	258	397	98,727	3,949	309
Georgia,	93	23,574	949	.....	75	38,901	1,363	.....	168	62,475	2,312	.....
Alabama,	134	47,097	1,766	.....	86	53,938	1,918	.....	220	101,035	3,684	.....
Louisiana,	712	237,179	9,097	9	289	101,056	4,306	1	1,001	338,235	13,403	10
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio,	33	2,653	132	.....	144	14,162	645	.....	177	16,815	777	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	1	18	4	.....	60	5,757	281	.....	61	5,775	285	.....
Florida Territory,	98	10,247	619	.....	38	6,099	275	.....	136	16,346	895	.....
Total,	8,343	2,010,924	99,300	3,108	5,500	906,814	55,075	964	13,843	2,917,738	154,375	4,072

Tonnage Entered into each State, etc., of the United States.

Statement of the Tonnage Entered into each State and Territory, from the 1st of July, 1843, to the 30th of June, 1844.

States and Territories.	American.				Foreign.				Total American and Foreign.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,	268	52,015	2,046	102	758	61,608	3,387	36	1,026	113,623	5,433	138
New Hampshire,	14	6,192	192	10	94	4,758	214	.....	108	10,950	406	10
Vermont,	348	55,495	1,738	546	.....	.....	.....	.....	348	55,495	1,738	546
Massachusetts,	1,215	273,843	12,785	474	1,294	104,545	6,782	1	2,509	378,388	19,567	475
Rhode Island,	94	17,746	890	31	8	1,021	55	.....	102	18,767	945	31
Connecticut,	119	26,265	1,544	90	45	5,378	277	.....	164	31,643	1,821	90
New York,	3,889	1,065,996	57,708	1,781	2,331	433,742	32,418	579	6,220	1,499,738	90,126	2,360
New Jersey,	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	297	14	.....	3	297	14	.....
Pennsylvania,	377	76,795	3,299	305	71	12,738	600	104	448	89,533	3,899	409
Delaware,	12	1,957	122	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	12	1,957	122	1
Maryland,	298	61,469	2,622	.....	111	21,344	1,116	.....	409	82,813	3,738	.....
Dis. of Columbia,	24	4,360	197	3	22	3,430	173	7	46	7,790	370	10
Virginia,	94	18,552	832	.....	21	4,702	220	.....	115	23,254	1,052	.....
North Carolina,	196	25,814	1,281	8	27	3,529	203	.....	223	29,343	1,484	8
South Carolina,	163	28,604	1,318	37	152	47,239	1,805	271	315	75,843	3,123	308
Georgia,	58	9,274	480	.....	73	37,004	1,368	.....	131	46,278	1,848	.....
Alabama,	102	27,095	1,085	.....	86	53,676	1,903	.....	188	80,771	2,988	.....
Louisiana,	730	211,656	8,426	33	281	99,705	4,321	6	1,011	311,361	12,747	39
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio,	30	2,691	134	.....	88	8,570	358	.....	118	11,261	492	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	3	129	6	.....	75	7,149	337	.....	78	7,278	343	.....
Florida Territory,	114	11,490	754	.....	37	6,557	397	.....	151	18,047	1,151	.....
Total,	8,148	1,977,438	97,459	3,421	5,577	916,992	55,948	1,004	13,725	2,894,430	153,407	4,425

A CONDENSED VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1844.

Districts.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. *Tons and 95ths.*	Total tonnage of each dist.
Passamaquoddy,	Maine,.....	3,298 15	5,878 16	9,176 31
Machias,	"	1,037 94	13,057 40	14,095 39
Frenchman's Bay,	"	1,714 58	17,904 74	19,619 37
Penobscot,	"	5,521 31	21,959 39	27,480 70
Belfast,	"	11,134 73	24,253 79	35,388 57
Waldoborough,	"	18,621 68	38,735 81	57,357 54
Wiscasset,	"	5,342 58	9,558 82	14,901 45
Bath,	"	38,938 85	18,891 02	57,829 87
Portland,	"	40,845 89	16,501 88	57,347 82
Saco,	"	1,544 35	2,176 67	3,721 07
Kennebunk,	"	4,882 80	2,374 11	7,256 91
York,	"	.....	1,155 72	1,155 72
Burlington,	Vermont,.....	.....	2,762 86	2,762 86
Portsmouth,	N. Hampshire,.....	14,645 74	8,279 50	22,925 29
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,.....	16,162 65	4,910 55	21,073 25
Ipswich,	"	.....	2,051 56	2,051 56
Gloucester,	"	2,681 76	13,161 91	15,843 72
Salem,	"	21,931 74	12,322 32	34,254 11
Marblehead,	"	1,526 47	8,099 81	9,626 33
Boston,	"	175,330 52	35,554 47	210,885 04
Plymouth,	"	6,825 74	9,039 30	15,865 09
Fall River,	"	2,716 22	4,954 00	7,670 22
New Bedford,	"	94,747 26	9,381 02	104,128 28
Barnstable,	"	5,995 25	34,212 38	40,207 63
Edgartown,	"	6,956 52	1,131 37	8,087 89
Nantucket,	"	27,749 39	3,765 15	31,514 54
Providence,	Rhode Island,.....	16,476 63	5,515 54	21,992 22
Bristol,	"	12,454 81	2,482 14	14,937 00
Newport,	"	6,447 00	4,795 94	11,242 94
Middletown,	Connecticut,.....	1,082 58	9,539 31	10,621 89
New London,	"	28,125 68	9,640 39	37,766 12
Stonington,	"	6,012 80	4,830 30	10,843 15
New Haven,	"	5,152 39	6,283 17	11,435 56
Fairfield,	"	713 93	10,793 30	11,507 28
Champlain,	New York,.....	.....	3,192 34	3,192 34
Sackett's Harbor,	"	.....	3,055 23	3,055 23
Oswego,	"	.....	9,387 89	9,387 89
Niagara,	"	.....	12 49	12 49
Genesee,	"	.....	235 05	235 05
Oswegatchie,	"	.....	1,022 03	1,022 03
Buffalo Creek,	"	.....	20,822 23	20,822 23
Sag Harbor,	"	19,618 59	6,068 32	25,686 91
New York,	"	253,888 23	271,273 75	525,162 03
Cape Vincent,	"	.....	2,720 51	2,720 51
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,.....	218 09	19,538 50	19,756 59
Bridgetown,	"	227 30	10,449 59	10,676 89
Burlington,	"	.....	4,104 66	4,104 66
Camden,	"	.....	5,429 28	5,429 28
Newark,	"	552 86	13,015 01	13,567 87
Little Egg Harbor,	"	.....	4,738 89	4,738 89
Great Egg Harbor,	"	.....	10,409 53	10,409 53
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,.....	40,295 59	74,599 24	114,894 83
Presqu'isle,	"	.....	4,213 46	4,213 46
Pittsburgh,	"	.....	9,232 71	9,232 71
Wilmington,	Delaware,.....	2,209 63	3,878 39	6,088 07
Newcastle,	"	.....	4,824 16	4,824 16
Baltimore,	Maryland,.....	41,541 40	34,961 72	76,503 17
Oxford,	"	.....	9,861 28	9,861 28

A CONDENSED VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1844—Continued.

Districts.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. *Tons and 95ths.*	Total tonnage of each dist.
Vienna,	Maryland,.....	337 75	12,178 55	12,516 25
Snow Hill,	"	.....	6,313 50	6,313 50
St. Mary's,	"	.....	1,778 66	1,778 66
Town Creek,	"	.....	1,574 16	1,574 16
Annapolis,	"	.....	2,492 19	2,492 19
Georgetown,	Dist. of Columbia,....	2,633 68	6,367 11	9,000 79
Alexandria,	"	6,591 48	3,945 48	10,537 02
Norfolk,	Virginia,.....	19,034 84	8,515 46	18,550 35
Petersburg,	"	948 76	698 39	1,647 20
Richmond,	"	3,514 47	4,536 88	8,051 40
Yorktown,	"	.....	2,001 35	2,001 35
East River,	"	.....	3,219 52	3,219 52
Tappahannock,	"	406 93	4,383 46	4,790 44
Folly Landing,	"	.....	2,931 50	2,931 50
Yecomico,	"	.....	3,227 27	3,227 27
Cherrystone,	"	.....	1,495 37	1,495 37
Wheeling,	"	.....	1,340 18	1,340 18
Wilmington,	North Carolina,....	11,222 54	3,504 65	14,727 24
Newbern,	"	1,558 90	2,416 31	3,975 26
Washington,	"	1,267 12	2,215 02	3,482 14
Edenton,	"	158 03	1,060 77	1,218 80
Camden,	"	802 64	8,173 92	8,976 61
Beaufort,	"	254 80	1,401 49	1,656 34
Plymouth,	"	898 14	1,015 83	1,914 02
Ocracoke,	"	.....	1,088 45	1,088 45
Charleston,	South Carolina,.....	9,445 87	9,864 15	19,310 07
Beaufort,	"	.....	329 92	329 92
Georgetown,	"	566 44	941 68	1,508 17
Savannah,	Georgia,.....	8,132 17	6,492 41	14,624 58
Sunbury,	"	.....	.....	.....
Brunswick,	"	698 07	779 66	1,477 73
Hardwick,	"	.....	.....	.....
St. Mary's,	"	765 52	237 30	1,002 82
Pensacola,	Florida,.....	1,066 67	866 89	1,933 61
St. Augustine,	"	396 62	212 46	609 13
Apalachicola,	"	.....	3,090 24	3,090 24
St. Mark's,	"	.....	142 18	142 18
St. John's,	"	.....	309 13	309 13
Key West,	"	2,443 89	1,049 15	3,493 02
Mobile,	Alabama,.....	3,827 33	11,387 11	15,214 44
Pearl River,	Mississippi,.....	.....	1,341 10	1,341 10
New Orleans,	Louisiana,.....	55,620 88	105,422 04	161,042 92
Teche,	"	.....	726 01	726 01
Nashville,	Tennessee,.....	.....	5,688 78	5,688 78
Louisville,	Kentucky,.....	.....	7,114 44	7,114 44
Cuyahoga,	Ohio,.....	.....	14,196 84	14,196 84
Sandusky,	"	.....	2,407 22	2,407 22
Cincinnati,	"	.....	13,139 39	13,139 39
Miami,	"	.....	2,371 52	2,371 52
Detroit,	Michigan,.....	.....	14,901 17	14,901 17
Michilimackinac,	"	.....	498 75	498 75
St. Louis,	Missouri,.....	.....	16,664 53	16,664 53
Total,.....		1,068,764 91	1,211,330 11	2,280,095 07

THE NUMBER AND CLASS OF VESSELS BUILT, AND THE TONNAGE THEREOF, IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE U. STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1844.

States.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps and canal-b'ts.	Steam-boats.	Total.	Tons. 95ths.
Maine,.....	27	15	52	...	2	96	20,200 17
N. Hampshire,.	1	...	2	...	...	3	754 88
Vermont,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Massachusetts,..	18	5	19	1	...	43	9,584 75
Rhode Island,.	5	2	...	...	...	7	2,813 76
Connecticut,....	1	...	8	9	7	25	2,914 12
New York,....	11	11	27	116	16	181	21,518 79
New Jersey,....	...	...	10	10	1	21	1,332 84
Pennsylvania,..	4	3	2	96	36	141	13,075 68
Delaware,.....	...	1	4	3	...	8	585 87
Maryland,.....	6	6	42	1	...	55	5,417 81
Dis. of Colum.,	...	...	...	31	...	31	850 13
Virginia,.....	...	...	4	2	4	10	717 30
N. Carolina,....	...	...	9	3	...	12	587 18
S. Carolina,....	...	...	4	1	2	7	583 59
Georgia,.....	...	...	...	1	...	1	72 11
Florida,.....	...	...	1	...	...	1	72 22
Alabama,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Mississippi,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Louisiana, ...	...	1	8	4	2	15	668 89
Missouri,.....	...	...	...	..	9	9	2,567 08
Tennessee,.....	..	..	..	..	2	2	271 21
Kentucky,.....	..	..	..	..	35	35	7,165 11
Ohio, ...	..	2	4	..	43	49	9,498 39
Michigan,..	..	1	8	1	4	14	2,284 87
Total,.....	73	47	204	279	163	766	103,537 29

HAVRE COTTON TRADE, FOR TEN YEARS.

STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, DELIVERIES, AND STOCKS, FROM JAN. 1, TO DEC. 31, FOR 10 YEARS.

	Stock 1st January.		*Imports.*		*Deliveries.*	
Years.	U. States.	All kinds.	U. States.	All kinds.	U. States.	All kinds.
1844,.bales	88,200	100,000	266,515	279,095	306,415	326,095
1843,.....	101,400	110,000	303,327	325,297	312,038	330,373
1842,.....	84,000	90,000	341,516	369,197	324,116	349,197
1841,.....	75,000	80,000	341,463	357,383	332,463	347,383
1840,.....	48,400	57,000	362,045	375,643	335,445	352,642
1839,.....	30,500	33,700	227,778	264,168	209,888	240,868
1838,.....	28,800	33,000	273,864	294,520	272,164	293,820
1837,.....	34,300	45,500	221,317	248,859	226,817	261,359
1836,.....	12,200	18,800	226,370	260,286	204,270	233,586
1835,.....	19,700	22,000	188,055	214,509	195,555	217,700

AMERICAN CHEESE.

The rapid increase of this important item of the dairy, at the west, is astonishing. Last year, the aggregate value of the amount that passed through the canals and the Hudson river, was over one million and a half dollars. We gather the following statistics in relation to cheese, from the canal office records at Albany:—

ARRIVED AT THE HUDSON RIVER.

	lbs.		
1834,.....	6,340,000	1840,.....	18,820,000
1835,.....	9,586,000	1841,.....	14,170,000
1836,.....	14,060,000	1842,.....	19,004,000
1837,.....	15,560,000	1843, ...	23,334,000
1838, ...	13,810,000	1844,.....	26,674,500
1839,.....	14,530,000		

The shipments to foreign nations have averaged, for the last ten years, about 3,000,000 lbs. annually. This went to forty-two countries. Within the two past years, the market in England has been gradually gaining; and there was exported there—

In 1843,.....	lbs.	2,253,416
1844, (estimated,).....		5,000,000

MANUFACTURES SHIPPED FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK.

The quantity of manufactured goods shipped from Liverpool to New York, from October, 1844, to March, 1845, inclusive, was about 9,500 packages less than during the same period the previous season. The duties at the custom-house have been proportionably less.

NUMBER OF PACKAGES OF MANUFACTURED GOODS SHIPPED FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK.

		Woollens.		Worsted stuffs.					
	Blankets.	Bales.	Cases.		Cottons.	Linens.	Silks.	Hosiery, etc.	Tot.
1844—October,	21	109	87	246	309	801	14	325	1,906
Nov'r,..	22	128	182	549	863	901	3	412	3,060
Dec'r,..	9	300	427	1,269	2,015	2,068	119	490	6,695
1845—Jan'ry,.	66	303	499	1,212	1,803	1,798	8	535	6,224
Febr'y,.	70	429	256	698	1,149	1,294	15	575	4,486
March,..	399	319	151	160	290	734	2	409	2,464
Total,.....	587	1,588	1,602	4,134	6,429	7,596	161	2,746	24,835
1843—October,	67	219	101	305	472	916	7	341	2,428
Nov'r,..	55	538	413	808	2,920	1,436	72	746	6,088
Dec'r,..	83	374	778	1,684	3,003	1,530	126	744	8,322
1844—Jan'ry,..	286	522	736	1,548	2,547	2,238	91	966	8,934
Feb'ry,..	45	287	380	730	1,102	1,337	32	402	4,315
March,.	364	402	304	690	661	1,608	8	246	4,283
Total,.....	900	2,342	2,712	5,765	10,705	9,065	336	3,445	34,370

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF EGYPT, IN 1844.

A statement has been drawn up and printed by an employee of the British Consulate at Alexandria, showing the amount of imports and exports to and from Egypt, in the year 1844. The total value of imports, of all descriptions, to Egypt, from different countries, is computed at £1,131,000. The total imports from Great Britain amount to £352,000 sterling; of which are, among other articles, the following:—

Coal,.....tons	20,000,	valued at	£30,000	sterling.
Cotton twist,.....bdls.	47,800	"	15,000	"
Indigo,.....tons	40	"	15,000	"
Manufactured cotton goods,..ps.	670,000	"	254,000	"

The total number of merchant ships of all nations arrived in Alexandria, in 1844, amounted to 3,177, of which 211 were English, of the burthen of 48,000 tons. The total value of exports, of all descriptions, from Egypt, to different countries, is £1,302,000 sterling; of which, to Great Britain and Malta, the amount is £452,000 sterling, comprising, among other articles—

Wheat,.....quarters	130,000,	valued at	£120,000	sterling.
Beans,.....	177,000	"	113,000	"
Linseed,.....	15,000	"	17,000	"
Flax,.....tons	2,600	"	41,000	"
Cotton,.....	3,435	"	115,000	"

The total number of merchant ships sailed from Alexandria amounts to 1,318, of which 203 are English, of the burthen of 42,000 tons.

IMPORT OF TEA INTO THE UNITED STATES.

In the Merchants' Magazine, for March, 1845, we published full and official tables of the export of tea into Great Britain from China. We now annex the comparative import of teas into the United States during seasons commencing July 1, 1842–43, and ending July 1, 1843–44:—

	1842-43.		1843-44.	
Young Hyson,	86,052	chests.	77,099	chests
Hyson,	15,759	"	8,068	"
Twankey and Skin,	25,223	"	26,138	"
Gunpowder,	10,725	"	6,001	"
Imperial,	8,806	"	4,841	"
Congou and Souchong,	44,450	"	44,133	"
Powchong,	10,502	"	13,469	"
Pecco,	1,063	"	1,243	"
Oolong,	1,390	"	1,380	"
Totals, 1st July,	203,970	"	182,372	"
Total number of pounds,			14,357,264	

EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM,

TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH COLONIES.

Emigration from the United Kingdom during the twenty years, from 1825 *to* 1844, *inclusive.*

1825,	8,741	5,551	485	114	14,891
1826,	12,818	7,063	903	116	20,900
1827,	12,618	14,526	715	114	28,003
1828,	12,084	12,817	1,056	135	26,092
1829,	13,307	15,678	2,016	197	31,198
1830,	30,574	24,887	1,242	204	56,907
1831,	58,067	23,418	1,561	114	83,160
1832,	66,339	30,872	3,733	196	103,140
1833,	28,808	29,109	4,093	517	62,527
1834,	40,060	33,074	2,800	288	76,222
1835,	15,573	26,720	1,860	325	44,478
1836,	34,226	37,774	3,124	293	75,417
1837,	29,884	36,770	5,054	326	72,031
1838,	4,577	14,332	14,021	292	33,222
1839,	12,658	33,536	15,786	227	62,207
1840,	32,293	40,642	15,850	1,958	90,743
1841,	38,164	45,017	32,625	2,786	118,592
1842,	54,123	63,852	8,534	1,835	128,344
1843,	23,518	28,335	3,478	1,881	57,212
1844,	22,924	43,660	2,229	1,873	70,686
Total,	551,386	569,633	121,165	13,791	1,255,975
Average annual emigration from U. Kingdom, for last twenty years,					62,799

BUILDINGS ERECTED IN NEW YORK, IN 1844.

1st ward,	47	10th ward,	49
2d "	16	11th "	87
3d "	40	12th "	16
4th "	12	13th "	49
5th "	34	14th "	26
6th "	22	15th "	149
7th "	55	16th "	292
8th "	48	17th "	136
9th "	136		

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL REPORT.

The capital of this company consists of 20,000 shares, of $100 each, amounting to $2,000,000. The amount of the debt, guaranteed by the state of New York, amounts to $800,000; making a total of $2,800,000. The amount of profits for the year ending March 1, 1845, was $250,984 36—equal to 13 per cent on the capital stock. Amount of dividends declared during the year 1844, 10 per cent.

STATEMENT OF ARTICLES TRANSPORTED ON THE DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL, DURING THE YEAR 1844.

Merchandise,	tons	8,414	Manufactures of wood,		1,373
Plaster,		922	Glass and glass-ware,		751
Cement,		5,835	Coal, screened, &c., up canal,		392
Tanners' bark,		311	Charcoal,		299
Leather,		1,250	Sundries, posts, rails, &c.,		681
Stone, brick, and lime,		1,425			
Millstones,		447	Total tons,		22,547
Staves, hoop-poles, and lath,		442			
Cords of wood,					2,718
Number of shingles, pine,					25,400
" " hemlock,					129,000
Ship timber, in cubic feet,					35,440
Hard-wood lumber, in board measure,					1,984,311
Pine " " "					2,228,832
Hemlock " " "					3,196,769

STATEMENT OF THE BUSINESS OF THE DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL COMPANY, FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 1, 1845.

To coal on hand Mar. 1, 1844,	$71,054 25	By sales of coal,	$864,107 31
mining coal,	132,364 13	canal and railroad tolls,	33,525 61
railroad transp'n and rep.,	117,543 90	interest received,	15,458 91
freight of coal to Rondout,	242,872 70	coal on hand,	73,452 55
canal rep. and superinten.,	77,756 18		
labor and exp. at Rondout,	22,417 77	Total,	$986,544 38
interest on state stocks,	38,325 00		
rents, salaries, current expenses, &c., N. Y.,	25,262 09	By balance,	$258,948 36
Balance,	258,948 36		
Total,	$986,544 38		

COST OF THE WORKS AND PROPERTY OF THE DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL COMPANY, AND AVAILABLE FUNDS, ON THE 1ST OF MARCH, 1845.

108 miles of canal,	$2,406,977 89	Coal on hand, and cash funds, etc.,	$307,157 06
16 miles of railroad,	503,579 95		
Canal boat, barges, and steamboat,	125,060 05	Total,	$3,463,686 34
Real estate,	120,911 39		

STATEMENT OF TOLLS RECEIVED ON THE DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL AND RAILROAD, IN EACH YEAR, FROM THE COMPLETION OF THE WORK.

1830,	$16,422 44	Carried over,	$271,609 21
1831,	20,554 64	1838,	40,328 38
1832,	28,717 51	1839,	40,095 26
1833,	37,004 58	1840,	35,450 46
1834,	36,946 07	1841,	39,388 19
1835,	41,976 82	1842,	33,894 93
1836,	45,154 73	1843,	30,996 53
1837,	44,832 42	1844,	33,525 61
	$271,609 21	Total,	$525,988 57

RATES OF FREIGHT ON THE ERIE CANAL.

The forwarders on the Erie canal have opened the campaign with lower rates of freight than ever before known. They advertise to carry flour from Buffalo to Albany for 55 cents per barrel; and, as 35 cents of this amount goes to the state for toll, they receive only 22 cents for carrying a barrel of flour 363 miles. At the rate of the Western railroad, they would receive only 45 cents, including tolls. On the Hudson, also, the rates are reduced 20 per cent. Last year, they carried flour for 10 cents per barrel; now, they charge only 8 cents. There was a combination among the forwarders in 1844, to keep up the price; now, they combine to reduce it. The charge, during the past season, was 87½ cents per barrel of flour, from Buffalo to New York; now, it is 53 cents, (45+8,) or 24½ cents per barrel less.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE COLLECTORS OF THE CUSTOMS,

RELATIVE TO THE ACT PASSED AT THE LAST SESSION OF CONGRESS, ALLOWING DRAWBACK ON GOODS EXPORTED TO THE TERRITORIES ADJOINING THE UNITED STATES.

The following circular instructions to collectors of the customs, dated Treasury Department, April 10th, 1845, are explanatory of the act of Congress, approved March 3d, 1845; which will be found in the Merchants' Magazine, for May, 1845, No. V., Vol. XII., page 487.

Herewith you will receive an act entitled "An act allowing drawback upon foreign merchandise exported in the original packages to Chihuahua and Santa Fe, in Mexico, and to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States," approved the 3d of March, 1845, accompanied with forms and instructions for carrying the same into execution.

The first six sections of the act apply to the exportation of merchandise "in the original packages as imported," to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fe, in New Mexico, either by the route of the Arkansas river, through Van Buren, or by the route of Red river, through Fulton, or by the route of the Missouri river, through Independence. Consequently, foreign imported merchandise exported or conveyed to the places in Mexico or New Mexico, mentioned, by any other routes than those indicated in the act, will not be entitled to a drawback of the import duties. It is also to be remarked, that the exportation of merchandise by the routes and to the places before mentioned, can only be made from the original port of importation.

In pursuance of the authority vested in the Secretary of the Treasury, by the 11th section of the act, the following rules, regulations, and forms, are prescribed, and are to be strictly enforced.

First.—In regard to the exportation of merchandise to Chihuahua and Santa Fe:—

On first giving twenty-four hours notice at the custom-house, of intention to export, the exporter must make due entry, and for that purpose must produce the invoice required by the 2d section of the act. Said entry must recite the invoice in detail; and, in addition, give a particular description of the merchandise, whence and by whom imported, the name of the vessel, and the time of importation, with the original invoice value of the goods; and also state the destination, and the route which the merchandise is to be transported. The entry must, in all cases, be verified by the oath or affirmation of the person making the same, together with the oath or affirmation of the first importer, with that of any person through whose hands the merchandise may have passed, declaring the same to be in the original package or packages, and that the duties have been paid or secured. Inspection of the packages should also be carefully made by a proper officer of the customs, at the time of making the entry. The bond required by the 5th section of the act must be given by the exporter.

In consideration of the large inland transportation, and the consequent risk of injury, and defacing the marks on the packages, thereby rendering it difficult to identify them, it is deemed proper, for the more effectual security of the revenue, to require that each package shall be enclosed in a strong wooden box or covering, on which the same marks and numbers are to be placed as those on the inner package. The inner package is to be secured with a strong cord or rope, with the custom-house seal attached.

Forms of entry, invoice certificates, and oaths, are herewith transmitted, marked from A to D, inclusive.

Second.—The remaining sections of the act apply to the exportation of merchandise for benefit of drawback to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States, and enumerating certain ports, "declared ports from which foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, may be transported, inland or by water, from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback."

The course to be pursued in the transportation, inland, of foreign merchandise, in the original packages as imported, to the designated ports of exportation enumerated in the 7th section of the act, is to be similar to that prescribed in the 79th section of the general collection act of 2d March, 1799; and all the legal requirements and forms of law must be strictly pursued, in cases arising under this act.

In the exportation by sea to ports in the adjoining British provinces, all the existing requisitions of law, regulating the exportation of merchandise to foreign ports, for the benefit of drawback, must be fully complied with.

On the arrival of merchandise transported inland, at either of the enumerated ports of exportation, a strict and thorough examination of the same must be made by an officer of the customs, to see that the goods are identical with those described in the accompanying transportation certificate, granted by the collector of the port from whence they may have been originally transported.

In the event of any detention of the merchandise, at the port of exportation, for any cause, said merchandise must be deposited either in the custom-house, or in some secure store-house, to be selected by the collector, the keys of which must be lodged in his hands. Any expense for storage must be defrayed by the owner or consignee of the goods. Before exporting the goods to their destined port in the adjoining British provinces, entry must be made according to the forms herewith marked E and F.

On the return of the manifest with the certificate thereon, in due form, to the collector of the port of exportation, it must be immediately transmitted to the collector of the district and port from whence the goods were originally transported, in order that the drawback of the duties may be duly paid by the collector of said port.

It is to be specially noted, that the law contemplating the probable retention of the original manifest at the foreign custom-house, requires a duplicate, or certified copy of the same, to be granted at the time of exportation, on which is to be endorsed the certificate of the foreign collector, and also the oath or affirmation of the master.

CANADA CUSTOM-HOUSE DUTIES CIRCULAR.

The following circular, dated "Inspector-General's Office, Montreal, April 7, 1845," addressed to the collectors of customs at the different ports in that province, and signed Jos. Carey, Deputy Inspector-General, refers to the act of Congress allowing drawback on goods exported to the territories adjoining the United States:—

Sir:—With reference to a recent act of the Congress of the United States, allowing drawback on merchandise exported to the British provinces in North America, which, no doubt, has come under your notice, I have the honor to remind you that articles so exported from the United States, into this province, will be liable to the payment of the duties imposed by the acts of the provincial legislature, and also to the duties under the imperial act 5 and 6 Victoria, cap. 49, whether such goods are originally the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any of the British possessions in America, &c., or otherwise.

On this point, your attention is requested to the 27th section of the imperial act 3 and 4 William IV., cap. 59, which enacts "that no goods shall, upon importation into any of the British possessions in America, be deemed to be of the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any British possessions in America, unless imported from the United Kingdom, or from some British possessions in America." Consequently, all articles imported into this province, from or through the United States, are deemed foreign, although any of such articles may be the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom; which, when so imported, must be held to be liable to duty as foreign goods; that is, to the duties in full imposed both by the acts of the imperial Parliament, and of the provincial legislature, imposing duties of customs, now in force, viz: Imperial Act 5 and 6 Victoria, cap. 49, and Provincial Act 8 Victoria, cap. 3, and 6 Victoria, cap. 31, the one in addition to the other."

CHINA NEW REGULATIONS FOR VESSELS.

A circular has been published by the government of Macao, intimating that all vessels in the Typa would, after the 26th December, 1844, be subject to new regulations. It is reported that many of them will remove in consequence, and take up their anchorage at Nine Islands.

The Royal Senate of Macao, under the superintendence of the governor, and the assistance of the judge, makes known to the public, that, after this date, the vessels that enter the inner harbor, outside, and Typa, will be subject to the regulations of the police of the port, and custom-house; paying, besides the duties on the goods, as per tariff, the anchorage of five mace per ton, without further fees.

Vessels that wish for a pilot, are requested to apply for the same to the Patrao-mor; for whose service, they are to pay five taels on coming in, and other five on going out; and, for the information of all, the present edict is fixed on its customary places.

The Royal Senate of Macao, under the superintendence of the governor, and the assistance of the judge, makes known to the public—

First—That are admitted to the deposit at the custom-house of this city, cotton, and all other goods, and articles from Europe and America, imported by any vessels from the ports, in and out of the Cape of Good Hope, paying the deposit duties of 1 per cent on the value of the goods, as stated in the tariff; and, in the like manner, the go-down rent and coolie hire, as established at the custom-house. Such goods as have no valuations levied on them in the tariff, will be subject to the duties, according to the value of their original invoices, regulating exchange as per sketch at the said department.

Second—The deposit is thus understood:—Six months for all manufactured goods from Europe and America, and three months for cotton; beginning to count ten days from the first landing of the goods at the custom-house.

Third—All such goods as remain to be cleared at the expiration of the time allowed in the section foregoing, are from thence subject to be cleared for consumption, paying their duties in full, with the privilege of being re-exported, should parties wish so.

Fourth—Cotton can be deposited at private go-downs, out of the custom-house, paying, on there being landed, the duties corresponding to the deposit. Shippers, proprietors, or agents, are to sign, and find security, to be answerable for the excess of the duties in full, in default of not clearing at the expiration of the time above alluded to for their deposit—also, for the fees of the custom-house officer who assists the verification, and the weighing, &c.

Fifth—Shippers, proprietors, or agents, will communicate at the department of the custom-house when they ship off their goods on deposit, as per section foregoing, in order that they may not be liable to the penalty marked in the third section.

Sixth—The goods, after being cleared for deposit, can be shipped off by vessels landing in the harbor or roads, China boats from Canton, as also Portuguese lorchas, having a license or passport from the governor for the port of Hong-Kong, or for the ports of China, opened for foreigners.

MASTERS OF VESSELS TRADING TO TURK'S ISLAND.

Masters of such vessels, when spoken by pilot-boats, should always take a pilot; as, when spoken, they are compelled by law to pay pilotage, whether they take one or not; and, if not decided at which island they intend to load, it will be better to lay off and on until they get necessary information as to the state of the two markets, by which advice they save an additional charge of half anchorage for removal, as it very frequently happens, there being four different places of anchorage at which vessels load. This information cannot be obtained from the pilots. They are compelled to anchor the vessels wherever the captain directs, charging only for such anchorage or removal. There is always a supply of salt at Salt Cay, as well as Grand Cay.

Vessels falling to the southward and eastward of the islands, as sometimes happens, instead of beating round to the eastward, may run between the two Southern Cays, giving the southern end of Salt Cay about a mile and a half berth; saving, perhaps, two days unnecessary sailing, and avoiding the dangerous N. E. reef of Grand Cay.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE ANNUAL MINERAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN,

Compiled and with the remarks by, Dr. Lewis Feuchtwanger, of the city of New York.

	U. States. Value.	Gr. Brit. Value.
Gold.—This metal is found in the United States in Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, and at the value, as per official account,.....	$589,605	.....
Gold is found in Cornwall, Scotland, (Wicklow,) and Ireland; and forty years ago they found to the amount of £5,000, but now merely show specimens.		
Silver.*—This metal does not exist in the United States in its native state, but is mostly contained in the argentiferous lead ores, from which it might be extracted, and an equal quantity as that obtained in Great Britain might be procured, provided the plan were pursued as described below. The silver is found in Great Britain in Cornwall, Wales, Yorkshire, Alster Moore, Cumberland, Isle of Man, and Ireland.† It is particularly extracted from the lead ores, and also from argentiferous veins, and the annual product is 10,000 lbs. troy,.....	.....	£3,000
Copper.—This metal is found in great abundance in Missouri, Wisconsin, Iowa, North Carolina, Virginia, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Connecticut, Michigan, and other places. The amount produced is 200,000 lbs.....	5,000	.....
Copper is found in Great Britain in Cornwall, Devonshire, North Wales, Anglesea, Lancashire, Cumberland, and Ireland, but mostly in Cornwall. Its annual product is 13,000 tons.....	.....	1,200,000
Tin.—This metal is found in this country but in small specimens. In Great Britain, it is found in Cornwall and Devonshire. Its annual product is 4,000 tons.....	.....	32,000
Lead.—It is found in great quantities in Wisconsin, Virginia, New York, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, North Carolina, and New Hampshire, and the annual product is 4,000,000 lbs.	1,200,000	.....
Lead is found in Cornwall, Devonshire, N. and S. Wales, Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Alston Moore, Lanarkshire, Isle of Man, and Ireland. The principal localities, however, are at Alston Moore, comprising part of Cumberland, Durham, and Northumberland. Annual product, 46,000 tons.....	.....	92,000
Manganese.—It is found in Vermont, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, and is now exported to Great Britain, from whence it was formerly brought. The annual product is 2,000 lbs.	5,000	.....
Manganese is found in Cornwall and Devonshire.....	.....	trifling.
Cobalt.—It is but rarely found in the United States. It is found in Cornwall.....	.....	trifling.

* *On silver.*—A very interesting and remarkable mode of extracting the silver, however small the quantity may be, contained in large quantities of lead, has been lately discovered by Mr. Pattinson, which is briefly the following:—The argentiferous lead is melted in cast-iron pots; and, when perfectly fluid, the fire is removed, and the draught-holes closed tight. After a little while, the lead mass is stirred by means of an iron bar. The lead is now forming into small crystals, which are all gradually removed by means of a ladle. This operation is continued till two-thirds of the lead, according to the quantity of silver contained in the mixture, has been taken away. The silver is now remaining, and may be refined by the cupelling operation. The lead thus drawn off contains but traces of silver, mechanically adhering to the crystals of lead. For this proof of obtaining all and any quantity of silver contained in the lead, the loss of the latter is but 2 per cent.

† It has recently been discovered in Davidson county, North Carolina.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICAL TABLES, etc.—Continued.

	U. STATES. Value.	GR. BRIT. Value.
ZINC.*—A considerable quantity of this metal is found in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and other places; and, owing to the expenses of distilling and refining, is thrown about, without drawing any benefit—but it might find a useful application as paint. Zinc is found in Great Britain in Yorkshire, North of England; and, although in large quantities, yet no use has been made of it, probably owing to the cheapness of the Silesian metal.		
IRON.—This metal is found in immense quantities in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Tennessee, Indiana, Maine, Michigan, and other states. The aggregate amount is 500,000 tons.....	$15,000,000	£.....
Iron is found in Great Britain in Glamorganshire, Monmouthshire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, near Glasgow, and Ireland, and the amount wrought is 900,000 tons.....	.....	7,500,000
COAL.—In the United States, the quantity of anthracite coal is yearly increasing; whereas the bituminous coal is now brought to light less than ever, (from 1,000,000 to 68,750 tons reduced, and anthracite coal from 863,409 to 1,008,001 tons increased.) The aggregate amount is 1,176,751 tons.	4,000,000	.....
Coal is found in Great Britain, in all those places mentioned as localities for iron, and also in Durham, North of Ireland; and the aggregate production is 25,000,000 tons...	.....	8,500,000
LIGNITE.—This mineral is found in Maryland, where it is employed in the manufacture of alum. Lignite is found in Great Britain in Heathfield, Devonshire, Yorkshire, and Sutherlandshire, and has a local application.....	unknown.	unknown.
SALT.—It is manufactured in the United States in nineteen out of twenty-eight states, but the largest quantity is made in New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Massachusetts, Kentucky, Ohio, &c.; and the production is 6,179,174 bushels. Salt is manufactured in Great Britain in Worcestershire and Cheshire, and is largely exported. Tons, 300,000.	.....	300,000
ALUM.—In Great Britain, it is found at Whitley, in Yorkshire. Tons, 1,500.....	.....	3,000
CHROME.—In the United States, it is found in Maryland. Tons, 1,500.....	20,000	.....
GRANITE, MARBLE, FREESTONE, SOAPSTONE, GNEISS, SYENITE.—These minerals are found in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, and other places. The aggregate value is.	5,000,000	.....
Total,.....	$30,000,000	£20,000,000

SCOTCH PIG IRON TRADE.

We learn, from a Glasgow correspondent, that the total produce in 1844 was 346,200 tons; exported from Scotland direct to foreign ports, 39,200 tons; exported from Liverpool to foreign ports, 33,000; stock on hand here, 31st December, about 55,000; used for home consumption, 219,000. Total, 346,200 tons. The average price for the twelve months was £2 16s. per ton, delivered here. The lowest number of furnaces in operation, at any period during the year, was 51, and the greatest 70; being the number at present in blast.

* *On Zinc.*—The zinc ores, or the black and yellow bleade, which is so abundant in Pennsylvania, and other states, where it is not yet used for the distillation of the metallic zinc, I will recommend its application for a very permanent paint. It is fire-proof, mixes well with oil, or with any other color; and gives by itself a good, substantial color, with a good body. The bleade may be ground quite fine; levigated, and either used by itself, or mixed with linseed oil, and fits itself extraordinary well for fences, walls, and houses. The cost cannot be more than one cent a pound.

NEW WORK ON THE STATISTICS OF COAL.

PRODUCTION, CONSUMPTION, AND COMMERCIAL DISTRIBUTION OF COAL.

Richard Cowling Taylor, Esq., of Philadelphia, Fellow of the Royal Geological Society of London, Member of the American Philosophical Society, etc., has issued proposals for publishing a work on "*The Geographical and Geological Distribution of Mineral Combustibles, or Fossil Fuel; ranging from the True Coal up to the Tertiary Lignites, and Peat, or Turf; including Notices and Localities of most of the Mineral Bituminous Substances employed in Arts and Manufactures; embracing, from Official Reports of the Coal-Producing Countries, the respective amounts of their Production, Consumption, and Commercial Distribution, together with their Prices, Tariffs, Currency, Duties, and International Regulations.*" It will be seen, from the title of the proposed work, that it embraces the whole subject. Mr. Taylor has been several years collecting materials for his work, in the persuasion that others, as well as himself, desired to possess, in a concentrated form, the characteristic details of one of the most valuable departments of mineral statistics. We quote a few passages from Mr. Taylor's prospectus, setting forth the general features of his plan:—

"One part of our plan, requiring no inconsiderable labor, is the rendering into familiar denominations the measures, weights, prices, and currency of those commercial countries to which we refer. We have adopted for our standards those of Great Britain, France, and the United States. Our plan embraces a wider range than the consideration of bituminous coal alone. We could not, in all cases, distinguish the nature of substances that have been announced as true coal by unscientific persons. Anthracites, of course, form an important feature, especially in the United States. The lignites, too, in their various modifications and conditions, constitute a class of fuel too valuable, particularly to continental Europe, to be omitted. The nature of some of the solid bitumens has, not unfrequently, been mistaken. Even the fluid bitumens, the naptha and petroleum; and, moreover, the asphaltes, and the mineral resins, possess claims to notice. Finally, in treating of a certain class of combustibles, we are led to note that of turf or peat; a substance entitled to much higher consideration than it has always enjoyed. In the three hundred tables of coal statistics, we have brought down the returns to the latest practicable period. In the thousand tables of coal analysis, we have inserted none without the sanction of the highest scientific authority. In these, our classification has been partly mineralogical, and partly geographical. For our authorities in geology, we have an extensive catalogue. So much as results from our own observations will, of course, be judged by its own merits. In regard to the general arrangement of the work, the geographical method is adopted, as the most convenient. From our European friends, we have received many details, which are not in general knowledge here. In return, we would convey to them others, of which they have been heretofore but imperfectly informed. Admitting the occasional and unavoidable scantiness of desirable facts, we are, nevertheless, reminded by the bulk of those already on hand, that a portion of their utility might be lost by their postponement—in fact, that we have reached a point at which we may venture to consign them to our publishers. It will be seen, from this outline, that we seek not to address ourselves to one set of readers, here or elsewhere. On the contrary, it has been our desire to furnish information, and the facilities of easy reference, to several classes. Among these, might be named the commercial, the manufacturing, and the scientific; and with them the producer, the operative, and the political economist. We will only add, for ourselves, that, in drawing up the foregoing notice, our aim has been to sketch the subject matter of the proposed volume; bearing in mind, nevertheless, the danger of promising too much."

The work is ready for the press; but, as it is designed for a somewhat limited class of readers, it is necessary to ascertain if a sale can be effected adequate to insure the publisher from loss. "As soon, therefore," says Mr. Taylor, "as a sufficient number of names are obtained to justify the risk, the work will be put to press." It will be comprised in a royal octavo volume, of about 750 pages, illustrated with maps, printed in the best manner, on fine paper, and handsomely done up in embossed cloth, and furnished to subscribers at five dollars per copy. It will afford us much pleasure to receive, at an early day, the names of all who may be interested in the publication of the work.

YOUNG MEN'S ASSOCIATION OF ALBANY.

We are indebted to FRANKLIN TOWNSEND, Esq., of Albany, for a copy of the report made at the twelfth annual meeting of this association. It is, we are informed, the first of its character incorporated in the state of New York. It has, on its roll of members, 841 names; 293 of which have been added since the last annual meeting. The receipts for the last official year amounted to $2,334 04; the expenditures, during the same period, have been $1,542 84—leaving a balance, in the hands of the treasurer, of $791 20. The property of the association, embracing the library, of 3,323 volumes, fixtures, and cash on hand, amounts to $5,666 20. The association is in the receipt of 18 periodicals, and 68 newspapers. Of the latter, 26 are daily, 3 tri-weekly, 5 semi-weekly, and 34 weekly. The expense of sustaining the reading-room, amounts to $600 per annum. The report of the President of the Association, CHARLES H. STANTON, Esq., is a sensible, business-like document; presenting a clear and comprehensive view of the condition and prospects of the association. We subjoin a single extract, as indicative of the spirit that seems to characterise its management. In alluding to a suggestion to increase the dues of membership, the President remarks:—

"I cannot unite in recommending such an increase; as it would, in my opinion, tend to defeat the great object of the founders of the society—the diffusion of knowledge among the masses. On the contrary, I believe it would be good policy to decrease them. I would put them so low that every individual of the community could enjoy the advantages of this institution—the poorest as well as the richest. Here the rich and the poor, the learned and the unlearned, the mechanic, the merchant, and the professional man, should assemble, and pass their hours of relaxation in acquiring and in imparting lessons of wisdom and virtue to each other. Here should all classes of society associate together, and endeavor to break down those artificial barriers created by wealth, which are a curse to every community. Here nature and her laws should be studied, not for the sake of power or influence, not for the sake of wealth, but for a higher and a nobler purpose—to benefit man. Such was the aim of the founders of the association, and such should be ours."

THE INTELLECTUAL, IN TRADE.

Cast a look on the natural and artificial productions of all the regions of the earth—consider how they have become one here, another there, articles of necessity for men. How pleasant and how intellectual a task is it to calculate, at any moment, what is most required, and yet what is wanting or hard to find; to procure for each, easily and soon, what he demands; to lay in your stock prudently beforehand, and then to enjoy the profit of every pulse in that mighty circulation. This, it appears to me, is what no man that has a head can attend to without pleasure. Visit one or two great trading towns, observe how many men are busied, whence so many things have come, whither they are going, you will see the smallest piece of ware in connection with the whole mercantile concern; and for that very reason you will reckon nothing paltry, because everything augments the circulation by which you yourself are supported.

MORALS OF TRADE.

The Philadelphia Ledger lately published a sketch of a discourse by the Rev. Mr. Clark, of the Episcopal Church, in that city, from which we make the subjoined extract, touching honesty of dealing between man and man. It would be difficult to gainsay the principle laid down; and yet, practically, we fear, it has too little part in the morals of trade.

"No one who is a Christian, or professes to be one, should take an undue advantage over his neighbor. For instance, if I should be making a sale with some person, and I knew more about the worthlessness of the article than he was aware of, and if I did not tell him of it, and were to receive his money, I would be doing a dishonest act. But if it was merely my own conjecture or opinion that to-morrow the article would fall in value, it would not be dishonesty on my part; for he would have his eyes as much opened as my own; and, after all, I might be mistaken. It is where one man takes the advantage over the other, that it becomes dishonesty."

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The History of Oregon and California, and other Territories on the Northwest Coast of North America, accompanied by a Geographical View and Map of those Countries, and a number of Documents as Proofs and Illustrations of the History.* By ROBERT GREENHOW, Translator and Librarian to the Department of State of the United States; author of "A Memoir, Historical and Political, on the Northwest Coast of America," published in 1840, by direction of the Senate of the United States. Second edition. Revised, corrected, and enlarged. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The present volume is devoted principally to the description and history of the portion of North America bordering on the Pacific ocean, between the 40th and the 54th parallels of latitude, which is traversed, and in a great measure drained, by the river Columbia, and to which the name of Oregon is now usually applied. Almost equal attention, however, has been bestowed on the regions embraced under the general appellation of California. The fact that two of the most powerful nations on the globe have an unsettled claim as to the ownership of this part of the North American continent, renders the publication of a work of so high authority, at the present time, at once interesting and important. Mr. Greenhow is a most faithful and laborious student, and seems to have made the best use of the extraordinary facilities afforded him, as Librarian to the State Department, in the preparation of the present work. He has sifted every reliable authority, and presented as full and succinct a history of Oregon and California, as the varied and scattered materials would permit. In the geographical view, he has collected, compared, and arranged in order, what appeared to him the most exact and striking details, presented by the numerous travellers who have visited the countries in question. The map, we are informed, has been compiled, as far as possible, from original authorities, and being intended for the illustration of the history, it embraces a very large portion of the globe. This edition contains "the answer to the strictures of Mr. Thomas Falconer, of Lincoln's Inn," on Mr. Greenhow's "History of Oregon and California," which appeared soon after the publication of the work in London.

2.—*The Library of Commerce: Practical, Theoretical, and Historical.* Vol. I, pp. 356. By FREEMAN HUNT, Editor of the "Merchants' Magazine," etc., etc. New York.

The design of the present series of publications is to supply a desideratum, which, it is believed, exists, in the absence of anything like a collection of works on this subject. The works embraced in the series will be more elaborate, of course, than the articles of the Merchants' Magazine; and, although not intended to supersede the monthly, it may be considered as a sort of companion to that work. Besides containing original and elaborately written works of an historical, theoretical, and practical character, by some of the most able writers of our own country, the Library of Commerce will include the most recent, and best selected productions on these subjects, from the commercial literature of Europe, some of which will be translated expressly for the work. Relying on the same liberal support which has been extended to the Merchants' Magazine, the editor trusts it will be found, at least, not inferior in its claims to the notice of his subscribers; and, in the full confidence of such approval, he now ventures to submit the first volume to their inspection. Vol. I. contains three distinct works:—1. HISTORY OF THE COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE OF THE WORLD WITH CHINA. 2. HISTORY OF THE BRITISH CORN LAWS, AND THE CORN TRADE. 3. MEMOIRS OF COMMERCIAL DELUSIONS; embracing historical sketches of the MISSISSIPPI SCHEME, and the SOUTH SEA BUBBLE. If the demand warrants it, we shall publish two or three volumes a year, at intervals of four or six months. The first volume is handsomely printed on fine paper, and neatly bound. The succeeding volumes will correspond in appearance, so as to form a uniform Library, varying in size from 350 to 400 pages. Subscription price, one dollar per volume.

3.—*American Facts, Notes, and Statistics, relative to the Government, Resources, Engagements, Manufactures, Commerce, Religion, Education, Literature, Fine Arts, Manners and Customs of the United States of America.* By GEORGE PALMER PUTNAM. London: Wiley & Putnam.

Mr. Putnam has collected a variety of facts and figures in relation to this country for the English market, which is very well; as our neighbors across the water have been "cock of the walk" for so long a time, that it is difficult to impress them with the idea that there is any other nation on the globe that has much of anything "to speak of." But we think the remarks and criticisms of the author in bad taste. The facts are all that can be of any service in enlightening John Bull in regard to Brother Jonathan. We hope, if Mr. P. publishes another edition of his work, he will omit the miserable "parody" copied from the North American Review, and supply its place with more facts; and, in giving credit for such as he may select from the volumes of this Magazine, designate the work by its legitimate title, viz: "Hunt's Merchants' Magazine;" and not, as in the volume before us, convey the impression that many of the selections have been made from some half dozen different periodicals; as, "New York Magazine," "Hunt's Magazine," "American Merchants' Magazine," etc., etc. The work is, on the whole, an interesting one; and Mr. Putnam is a most intelligent bookseller, and deserves the thanks of his countrymen for his efforts to diffuse abroad a correct knowledge of our commercial strength and general resources.

4.—*Library of Choice Reading.* New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1.—*Eothen; or, Tales of Travel Brought Home from the East.*——2. *Mary Schweidler, the Amber-Witch; the Most Interesting Trial for Witchcraft Ever Known.* Printed from an imperfect Manuscript by her Father, ABRAHAM SCHWEIDLER, the Pastor of Coserow, in the Island of Usedum. Edited by W. MEINHOLD, D. of P., etc. Translated from the German. By Lady DUFF GORDON.——3. *Undine, and Sintram and his Companions.* From the German of FREDERICK DE LA MOTTE FOQUE.——4. *Imagination and Fancy; or, Selections from the English Poets, illustrative of the first requisites of their Art; with Markings of the Best Passages, Critical Notices of the Writers, and an Essay in answer to the Question, "What is Poetry?"* By LEIGH HUNT.——5. *So Much of the Diary of Lady Willoughby as relates to her Domestic History, and to the Eventful Period of the Reign of Charles the First.* ——6. *Table Talk: Opinions on Books, Men, and Manners.* By WILLIAM HAZLETT.——7. *Headlong Hall, and Nightmare Abbey.*——8. *Concert Moral Tales.*

We have placed at the head of this notice the title-page, entire, of each number of this new series of "books which are books," in the order in which they have appeared, for the purpose of introducing the plan of the Library to our readers. A description, or anything like a review of each work, would occupy more space than we can spare; although each volume, from its varied and extensive literary excellence, is worthy of an elaborate critique. The views of the intelligent and enterprising publishers are clearly expressed in the announcement appended to the first number, as follows:—

"The so-called 'cheap literature,' while it has failed to supply good and sound reading, and has been attended with many publishing defects, has, in some degree, prepared the way for the new demand. It has shown the extent of the reading public in the country, and the policy of supplying that public with books at low prices proportioned to the extent. Books in the United States must hereafter be cheap. To reconcile the utmost possible cheapness with a proper attention to the literary and mechanical execution of the works published, will be the aim of the publishers of the present series. The book form, a legible type, good paper, careful proof reading, faithful editorial labor, are some of the elements which the publishers hold indispensable in the publication of a cheap book. The cheapness of a book lies in the value of the book, as well as in the low price. Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading is issued at convenient intervals, in a novel and agreeable book form. Each volume includes the matter of an ordinary English octavo, and is published at prices varying from twenty-five to fifty cents. For copyright works, and any of unusual size, a proportionate charge will be made. The staple of the series will be the best books of travels, biographies, works of classic fiction—where the moral is superior to the mere story, without any sacrifice of the interest—occasional choice volumes of poetry, essays, criticism, contributions to history, and generally such single volumes written by men of genius, as will equally delight the scholar and the general reader. The works published will be new and old, drawn from the best contemporary writers, and from the ample store houses of our English literature. An American copyright series, published uniformly with the others, will form an important part of the undertaking."

The uniform favor with which the works, thus far, comprising a part of the series, have been received, is the best evidence that can be given of their value.

5.—*Sketches of Residence in Brazil, embracing Historical and Geographical Notices of the Empire, and its several Provinces.* By DANIEL P. KIDDER. In two volumes, with illustrations. Philadelphia: Lorin & Ball.

This is, we believe, the first work exclusively devoted to the Brazilian empire, issued from the American press. The volumes before us embrace the reminiscences of nearly two and a half year's residence and travels in Brazil, in connection with historical and geographical sketches of the country. Although his attention as a Christian missionary was primarily devoted to the important subjects of morality, education, and religion, he has introduced a variety of incidents connected with his residence and travel, not omitting to furnish apparently faithful sketches of the manners, customs, and institutions, civil and political. Having spent some time, as we are informed, in each of the principal maritime cities and provinces, he necessarily became acquainted with the present state of things in Brazil, such as it has become through the repeated and extreme changes of government through which that country has passed, within the last thirty years. The work is written in an easy and agreeable style, and every page bears the marks of an observing and truthful spirit, anxious to convey to the mind of the reader, as briefly as possible, all the distinguishing and peculiar features of the country, the people, and its institutions. We shall, in a future number of this Magazine, endeavor to group, in a few pages, such facts and statements as bear upon the commerce of the country, and the commercial spirit of the people.

6.—*The Secret Corresponding Vocabulary, adapted for Use to Morse's Electro-Magnetic Telegraph and also in Conducting Written Correspondence, transmitted by Mails, or otherwise.* By FRANCIS O. J. SMITH, Esq.

This compilation is designed to facilitate correspondence through the medium of Morse's Electro-Magnetic Telegraph, and also secret correspondence, when written for conveyance by mails, or otherwise. By means of it, a correspondence can pass between two individuals with the most perfect secresy; so that no third person can, by any possibility, decipher the writer's meaning. It is a very ingenious compilation, and will, of course, become an indispensable hand-book to all who may wish to avail themselves of the magnetic telegraph, or who find it desirable or necessary to carry on a secret correspondence. Mr. Smith, the learned compiler, has explained its use, in a few clear and comprehensive rules. We shall refer to the subject again, and endeavor to give some explanation of Mr. Smith's system. The volume is dedicated to Professor Morse, and, of course, has his approval.

7.—*The Book of the Navy; comprising a General Military History of the United States, from the Period of the Revolution to the Present Time. With Particular Accounts of all the most Celebrated Battles. Compiled from the best authorities.* By JOHN FROST, LL. D., Professor of Belles Lettres in the High School of Philadelphia. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The success of the "Book of the Army" induced the author to prepare the present volume. The two volumes form a history of our national defence, from the period of the declaration of independence to the present time. We suppose that a large majority of the people are entertained by works of this class; but there is in our mind something so abhorrent in the butchery and barbarism of war, that we cannot find it in our heart to commend any work calculated to foster so foul a spirit; although, to quote from Dr. Frost's preface, "it tends to preserve the national spirit, and to excite emulation among those upon whom the national defence will hereafter devolve." The time is fast approaching, we trust, when the pruning-knife and the plough-share will take the place of the sword, and other instruments of destruction. It is well, perhaps, as matter of history, to preserve and publish these relics of human depravity; and the author, publishers, and artists, have contrived to make a very attractive book of it. By the help of Mr. Darley's designs of the great battles, and the masterly engravings of Lossing, Illman, etc., the volume goes forth embellished in a beautiful style of art.

8.—*Stable Economy: A Treatise on the Management of Horses, in relation to Stabling, Grooming, Feeding, Watering, and Working.* By JOHN STEWART, Veterinary Surgeon, Professor of Veterinary Medicine in the Andersonian University, Glasgow. From the third English edition, with Notes and Additions, adapting it to American Food and Climate. By A. B. ALLEN, Editor of the "Agriculturalist." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We regard this as a very thorough and complete treatise on the management of the horse, considerably improved by the American editor. The horse, both theoretically and practically, has been a favorite study with Mr. Allen, from childhood; and, for the past ten years, he has been more or less engaged in breeding and rearing them on the farm, and in breaking and fitting them for market. It is a manual that should be in the hands of every one who has occasion to own or use this noble animal.

9.—*Never Too Late.* By CHARLES BURDETT, author of "Emma, or the Lost Found," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The former volumes of Mr. Burdett were designed to inculcate "the necessity of early piety;" the present is intended to show, by practical illustrations, drawn from every-day life, that "it is never too late to come to God; never too late to repent." Aside from the inaccuracies of language, and carelessness in style, owing probably to the habit of hurriedly reporting for a daily Journal, the narrative possesses considerable merit; and its influence for good will perhaps counteract, in some degree, the immoralities of the author's earlier fictions, written to order for one of our daily Journals.

10.—*The Retrospect of Practical Medicine and Surgery; being a Half-Yearly Journal, containing a Retrospective View of every Discovery and Practical Improvement in the Medical Sciences.* Edited by W. BRAITHWAITE, Surgeon to the Leeds General Eye and Ear Infirmary, and Lecturer on Midwifery, and the Diseases of Women and Children, in the Leeds School of Medicine. New York: Daniel Adee.

The first semi-annual number or part of this work, made its appearance in England in July, 1840; and a uniform, fac simile edition, was shortly after announced in this country; eight numbers of which, bound in two large octavo volumes, of about six hundred pages each, are now before us. A part of the work appears half yearly, one in July, and another in January, so as to form one annual volume, constituting a condensed register of medical facts and observations for the past year, besides a complete retrospect of all that is valuable and worth preserving respecting the treatment of disease, gleaned from the British and foreign medical Journals, and the transactions of the different societies and associations, and presented to the reader in as condensed a form as possible, and generally in the words of the different authors. Aside from its value to the profession, we should think, judging from our own experience of the pleasure derived from its perusal, that it would be acceptable to individuals of liberal tastes, fond of acquiring information on subjects of so much importance to the race generally.

11.—*Elements of the Comparative Anatomy of the Vertebrate Animals.* By RUDOLPH HOGUER. Translated and edited by ALFRED TULK. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The advances made in modern times, in the various portions of physical science, are among the most evident improvements in beneficial knowledge. Students of anatomy will discover in this volume a luminous and methodical arrangement of the subject discussed, both by comparison and contrast. The value of this compend, which includes the essential theories, and the condensed information of the large and very expensive works of other authors, combined with the profound practical acquaintance both of the author and editor with physiology and comparative anatomy, render this volume the best introductory work upon the subject now extant.

12.—*A Catechism of the History of Ireland, Ancient and Modern.* By WILBURN J. O'NEILL DAUNT, Esq., author of "Saints and Sinners." Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

This little volume furnishes us with a condensed sketch of all the most prominent events in Irish history, from the earliest period, down to the present time. "Its brevity," says Mr. M'Gee, the American editor, "omits nothing of importance which could be thus glanced at; while the admirable connection of the whole charms the memory from the forgetfulness of any portion of its contents."

13.—*Notes Explanatory of the Epistles of Paul to the Ephesians, Philippians, and Colossians.* By Albert Barnes New York: Harper & Brothers.

The system of interpreting the letters of Paul, recommended and adopted by Locke, is undoubtedly the only true one of coming to anything like a clear understanding of the writer's meaning. They are to be regarded simply as letters, addressed to churches or individuals, which the reader in our time will comprehend just in proportion to his knowledge of the situation and circumstances of the persons to whom they were addressed. How far Mr. Barnes has adopted this course in his commentary of these epistles, we are unable to say. His reputation as a scholar, learned in biblical lore, would lead us, however, to suppose that he had pursued, in some measure, a course in accordance with the dictates of reason and common sense. The comments, or explanations, are very elaborate, but the practical deductions seem to us altogether too apparent and diffuse. It strikes us that if commentators would confine their labors to critical illustrations of the sacred text, explaining, as far as may be, the idiom of the original language, and the manners and customs, etc., of the time in which the epistles were written, the drawing of the *morals* might be safely left to the devout student. The explanations are, of course, in accordance with the prevailing orthodox theology of the day.

14.—*Plato Against the Atheists: or, The Tenth Book of the Dialogue on Laws, accompanied with Critical Notes, and followed by Extended Dissertations on some of the Main Points of the Platonic Philosophy and Theology, especially as compared with the Holy Scriptures.* By Taylor Lewis, D. D., Professor of Greek Language and Literature in the University of the city of New York. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work is designed for students. The essay of Plato is in the Greek language, with an introduction and copious notes, occupying more space than the text, in English. The high and holy theme of the heathen philosopher is worthy of being studied by all men; and our only regret is, that the learned commentator did not furnish us, side by side, a translation, that the unlearned might enjoy the benefit of this great teacher of a philosophy that possesses so many features in common with the higher revelations of Christianity.

15.—*The Botanical Text-Book, for Colleges, Schools, and Private Students: comprising, Part I. An Introduction to Structural and Physiological Botany. Part II. The Principles of Systematic Botany, with an account of the Chief Natural Families of the Vegetable Kingdom, and Notices of the Principal Useful Plants.* Second edition, illustrated with more than a thousand engravings on wood. By Asa Gray, M. D., Professor of Natural History in Harvard University. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The present compendious treatise is designed to furnish classes in our schools and colleges with a suitable text-book, and private students with a convenient introductory manual, adapted to the present condition of botanical science. Since the publication of the first edition, the work, we are informed, has been almost entirely re-written, and the number of pages increased by about one quarter, and the illustrative wood engravings doubled. It forms a handsomely printed duodecimo, of more than five hundred pages.

16.—*The Apocryphal New Testament; being all the Gospels, Epistles, and other Pieces now extant, attributed in the First Four Centuries to Jesus Christ and his Companions, and not included in the New Testament by its Compilers.* Translated, and now first collected into one volume, with Prefaces and Tables, and Revised, Notes, and References. New York: H. Daggers.

The English translator of the writings comprised in this volume, says—"He who possesses this and the New Testament, has, in the two volumes, a collection of all the historical records relative to Christ and his apostles, now in existence, and considered sacred by Christians during the first four centuries." The work has excited considerable attention abroad; and its republication here, we are informed, was undertaken from a persuasion that it can do no harm to any reader to see those portions of the Scriptures which were rejected as apocryphal by the Fathers of the early Christian Church.

17.—*Midnight Hours; or, Leisure Moments of an Artist.* By E. A. Brackett. Boston: Freeman & Bolles.

The author of these poems, though quite young, has acquired an enviable reputation as a sculptor. The principal part of the book, he informs us, in his very modest preface, was written during the year 1844, in those intervals from study and labor which fall to the lot of every artist, and with no expectation that it would be read beyond his own fireside. The enthusiasm which every artist brings to his profession, not unfrequently finds vent in other things. Those outbreakings may be termed his waste thoughts, and he should be thankful that they take no worse direction than that of writing verse. The volume, we are informed, was printed (not published) for private circulation among the author's friends. It is not surprising to find a true artist no mean poet, as all who fall in with the volume will readily admit.

18.—*Moral Tales.* By Maria Edgeworth. 3 volumes. Embellished with numerous original designs, by Darley. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

The generally acknowledged excellence, and universal popularity of Miss Edgeworth's tales, renders any praise that we can bestow perfectly useless. The present edition is "got up" in a very beautiful style, and the illustrations of Darley are capital. They should form a part of every family library, irrespective of sect or party, as they are purely moral, and very happily blend amusement and instruction.

19.—*A Complete Concordance of the Holy Scriptures.* By ALEXANDER CRUDEN, M. A. A New and Complete Edition. With an Introduction. By the Rev. DAVID KING, LL. D. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

Cruden's Concordance has stood without an equal in the English language, for more than a century. The original is, however, too voluminous for general use; and the abridgments heretofore made have been too meagre to answer the purpose of a concordance. The present edition seems to embody all that constituted the excellence of the original work, omitting the Bible Dictionary, which has been depreciated by works of later date, containing recent discoveries, facts, and opinions, unknown to Cruden. The condensation of the quotations of Scripture, arranged under their most obvious heads, while it diminishes the bulk of the work, greatly facilitates the finding of any required passage. It forms a volume of nearly 600 three-column pages, printed on nonpareil type.

20.—*Pictorial History of the World.* By JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of a "Pictorial History of the United States," etc. Philadelphia: Benjamin Walker.

The chief excellence of this work consists in the elegance of its typography, and the beauty of its embellishments. The two numbers before us are really the most splendid specimens of the art of book-making, that have fallen under our observation. When finished, it will be comprised in three royal octavo volumes, each complete in itself, embracing three epochs in the world's history—as, Ancient, the Middle Ages, and Modern History, to the present time. It is to be illustrated with upwards of five hundred engravings; and if, as we are assured, those to follow correspond in style with the two first numbers, we should consider the "pictorials" an ample remuneration for the outlay.

21.—*Life of Madame Catharine Adorna; including some Leading Facts and Traits in her Religious Experience, together with Explanations and Remarks, tending to illustrate the Doctrine of Holiness.* Boston: Waite, Pearce & Co.

We are informed by the author of this little volume that the subject of it was so strong in faith, and in that holy love of which faith is the true parent; whose life was so coincident with what the Gospel requires, and with what Christ personally set forth as an example to be followed, that she was regarded as an embodiment of the highest ideal of Christian holiness.

22.—*Miscellanies: consisting principally of Sermons and Essays.* By JOHN HARRIS, D. D., author of "Mammon," the "Great Teacher," the "Great Commission," etc., etc. With an Introduction and Notes. By JOSEPH BELCHER, D. D. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

Aside from the religious bearing of the various works of Dr. Harris, one of the most eminent divines of the Baptist denomination in England, he has ever commanded the respect of intellectual men of all religious sects for his fine and highly cultivated mind, and for the force and purity of his style, as well as the truly catholic spirit infused into his writings.

23.—*The Snow-Drop. A Gift for a Friend.* Edited by C. W. EVERETT. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This elegant little gift book is composed wholly of original contributions; and, although its general character resembles an annual, its value is perennial.

24.—*An Exposure of the Arts and Miseries of Gambling, designed especially as a Warning to the Youthful and Inexperienced, against the Evils of that Odious and Destructive Vice.* By J. H. GREENE. Second edition, improved.

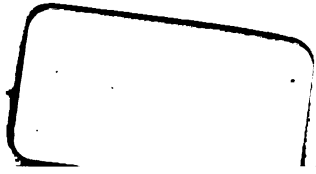
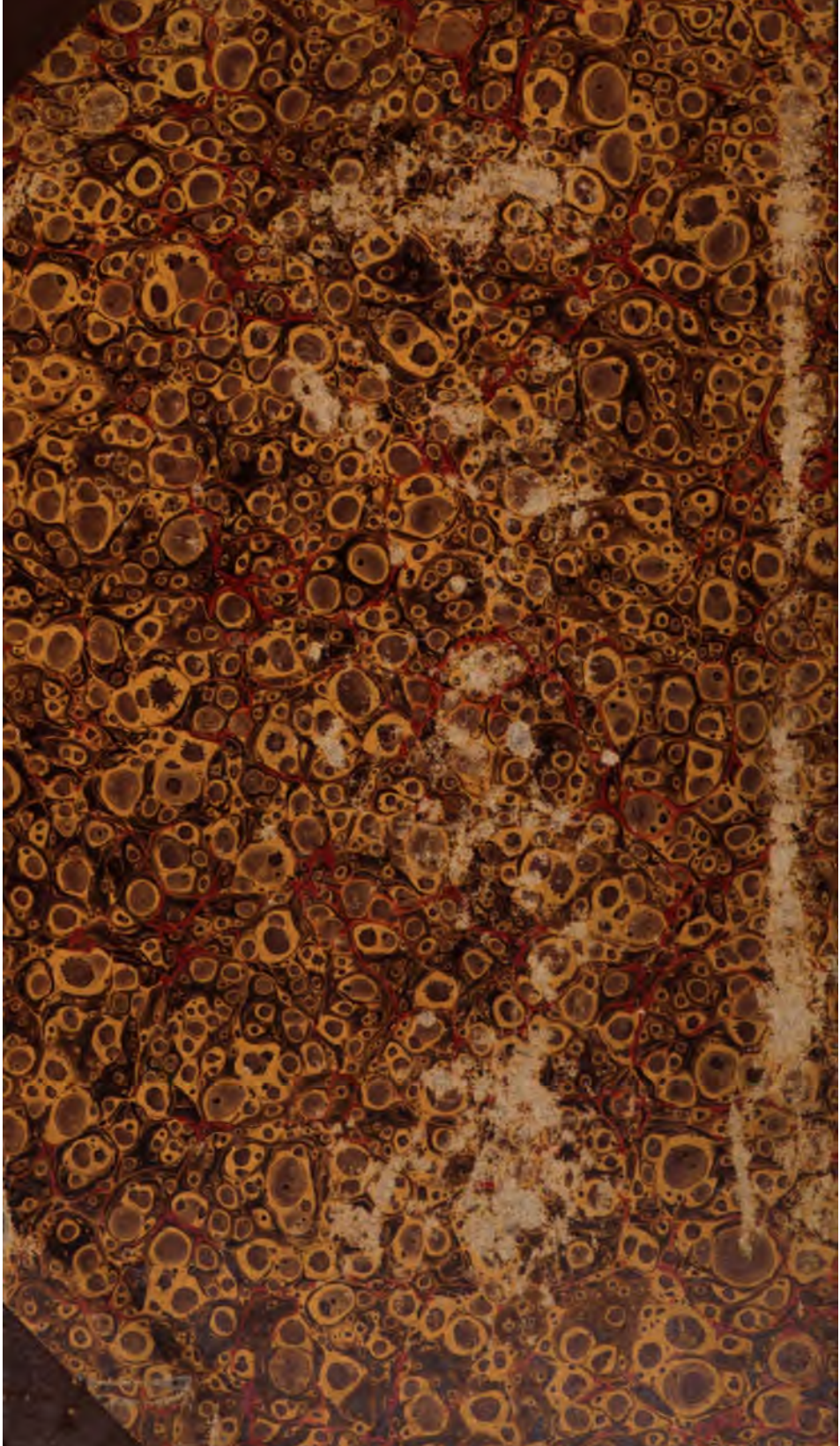
25.—*Gambling Unmasked: or, The Personal Experience of the Reformed Gambler, J. H. Greene.* Written by himself. New York: Judd & Taylor.

The iniquity of gambling, in all its forms, is exhibited in these two volumes by one whose depth of experience enables him to speak with a force and directness that demand a hearing.

26.—*Popular Lectures on Astronomy.* By M. ARAGO. With Additions and Corrections. By DIONYSIUS LARDNER, LL. D. New York: Greeley & M'Elrath.

27.—*Popular Lectures on Science and Art, delivered in the Principal Cities and Towns in the United States.* By DIONYSIUS LARDNER, Doctor of Civil Law, Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, etc., etc. New York: Greeley & M'Elrath. [Publishing in parts of about 100 pages each, and to form, when completed, two large octavo volumes, handsomely printed. The subjects included embrace a variety of topics in the astronomical and physical sciences, and their application to the arts of life.]

28.—*History of Oregon Territory; it being a Demonstration of the Title of the United States of North America to the same. With a Map.* By THOMAS J. FARNHAM, Esq. New York: William Taylor. [A clear and comprehensive view of the whole subject.] The same publisher has reprinted the pamphlet of T. Falconer's statement of the British claims to the Oregon, in opposition to what he terms "the pretensions of the government of the United States." The first shows the American, and the latter the British "pretensions."

29.—*Zoe; the History of Two Lives.* By GERALDINE ENDSOR JEWSBURY; being No. 52 of the Library of Select Novels.—*Charles Tyrrell; or, The Bitter Blood.* By G. P. R. JAMES. Two vols. in one; being No. 8 of the Pocket Edition of Select Novels.—*Mount Sorel; or, The Heiress of the De Veres.* By the author of "The Two Old Men's Tales."—*An Encyclopædia of Domestic Economy, comprising such subjects as are most intimately connected with Housekeeping; as, The Construction of Domestic Edifices, with the Modes of Warming, Ventilating, and Lighting them; a Description of the Various Articles of Furniture; the Preservation of Health; Domestic Medicine, etc., illustrated with nearly One Thousand Engravings.* [To be completed in twelve parts, of about 150 pages each, at 25 cents per part.] Harper & Brothers.

Errata to Article on the Corn Trade of the United States, in the last number of this Magazine.—Page 483, line 23 from the top, for "considerable," read "inconsiderable." Page 494, line 7 from the top, commencing below the table, for "136,679,000," read "13,679,000."